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ABSTRACT

This volume consists of papers presented at a joint conference. Among the topics addressed were: preservice and inservice teacher education, multicultural education, reflective teaching, instructional improvement, curriculum models, educational change, beginning teacher induction, collaboration, teacher and student teacher supervision, educational objectives, moral responsibility, physical education, student assessment, student attitudes and motivation, non- and limited-English proficient students, and the future of teacher education. Over 140 papers are included in the volume. (JD)

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35th World
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18th Annual
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# Progress and Promise in Teacher Education

## CONFERENCE PAPERS

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**SOUTH PACIFIC ASSOCIATION FOR TEACHER EDUCATION INC**

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# CONFERENCE PAPERS

## Monday 18th to Friday 22nd July

## (Inclusive)

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# Preface

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There are two indices for the volumes of Conference papers. The first, found at the beginning, is a chronological index of presenters showing main author, day, time, room and page numbers. The second index found at the end of the volume, is an alphabetical index of presenters and the relevant page numbers for their papers.

The symbols 's' and 'i' represent SPATE AND ICET presenters respectively.

As this volume of Conference papers was printed before the Conference Handbook, any subsequent changes should be reflected in the latter publication.

**Unless indicated otherwise during the Conference the rooms and times shown in the Conference Handbook are those to be adhered to throughout the Conference**

**Robin Porter,**
**On Behalf of the Program Committee**

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## 3.1.1. THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN STAFF DEVELOPMENT AND EVALUATION

### A Model for Organizational Change

Dr. Judith R. Glickman
Superintendent
Moraga School District

An inservice training program to revise their evaluation system was initiated by the Moraga School District, a local educational agency. The District affiliated with Stanford University Institute for Sound Governance which evaluated the effectiveness of the training program. Initial commitment and planning originated with the management team of school site and District administrators. Program content focused on clearly identified instructional skills based on research on effective teaching. The entire management team and seven exemplary teachers from the District were trained by an outside consultant. These individuals then became trainers for the rest of the teachers of the District, entitling the program, Elements of Effective Instruction. The District paid teachers to attend a three day workshop before the start of classes in September for two consecutive years. Though teachers attended voluntarily, the District informed them this training would serve as a focus for teacher evaluation in the future. In fact, at the onset the direct linkage between staff development and teacher evaluation was acknowledged with an implicit understanding that a common agreement on and accompanying vocabulary of the Elements of Effective Instruction would have added advantage of enhancing the credibility of the schools within the community.

Initially, Moraga focused its evaluation reforms on the evaluation process and not on specific forms or evaluation instruments. The principals held preobservation conferences with each teacher to negotiate specific areas of focus, observed and commented on specific teaching skills rather than global, unobserved criteria, increased the number of formal observations during the year with accompanying anecdotal records, and carefully planned post conferences to share recommendations and focus for the next observation. None of the practices required any alterations in the collective bargaining agreement. As trust and levels of awareness and knowledge increased, the concrete linkage between staff development and evaluation occurred. A new evaluation instrument congruent with the Elements of Effective Instruction was negotiated at the bargaining table.

To improve levels of trust, the Superintendent held a personal conference yearly with every teacher in the District to discuss their educational philosophy and professional goals. The central office staff and building principals were directly involved in district decision making. The superintendent visibly prioritized instruction by spending two days each month in classrooms observing teachers. The District institutionalized a formal goal setting process. District goals became translated into goals for the superintendent which became goals for the principals and, finally, goals for the teachers.

Implications for policy and practice that promote the integration of accountability and improvement goals were summarized in the findings of the Stanford study:

1. The fostering of collegiality between teachers and administrators. Both teachers and administrators receive identical training communicating the message that administrators' and teachers' professional influence spheres are not mutually exclusive. A common instructional focus for both teachers and administrators emphasizes the common background all school personnel share as classroom teachers.
2. The common basis for accountability and improvement. The training serves as a basis for removing less than satisfactory teachers from the classroom yet stimulates collegial exchanges among teachets and serves as a professional growth for many others. It also addresses the fairness problem that hinges so many efforts to bring about reform in a teacher evaluation system.
3. The acknowledgment of human judgment as well as technical validity.

4. The acknowledgment of the value of ongoing training. Moraga focuses its limited resources on training people. In doing so the District highlights the importance of instructional resources both symbolic (District goal statements) and actual (use of discretionary, local education foundation funds).
5. The prioritizing of instructional leadership from the Superintendent. Teacher evaluation is the top priority in the District. There is a clear unambiguous focus on instructional excellence. The Superintendent is required to be the instructional leader.
6. Reinforcement of the concept that evaluation is an ongoing, long-term process.

What have we learned? What are some of the implications for development of similar models in other school settings?

- Change is a gradual and demanding process which requires patience. At the outset we decided that to implement this program we must expect to do so over a minimum of four years with the implicit understanding that we would continually refine and refocus our objectives throughout that period of time. Specifically, we know that the impetus for the program was generated from the Board and the Superintendent, that the organization and core of the program originated with the management team, and that the content of the program was developed by a small cadre of teachers and site administrators. The rest of the teaching staff were participants whose interest and skill ranged from highly motivated and highly skilled to unskilled and resistant. To teach the least skilled while maintaining the interest of our most talented teachers would require keen planning on the part of the cadre. Staff members operated at different levels along the change continuum. It was critical that the program be implemented over a minimum of a four-year period to assure that each person moved far enough along the continuum to meet the criteria for acceptable teaching.
- Continued support and follow-up after the initial training are mandatory. Without the support of the cadre coaching within individual classrooms, principals prioritizing classroom observation, and release time for teachers to visit and observe one another, we not only would have expected no progress but would actually have experienced hostility from our staff toward these new ideas and increased distrust by them of the evaluation process. If continued follow-up could not have been provided, we would not have begun the program in the first place. Organizational change does not occur without continued follow-up. A district would be fortunate if even any incidental, short-term change would occur without follow-up.
- Teachers must receive regular feedback from their principals, central office staff, the superintendent, and their colleagues. From their professional colleagues, either words or written communication suffice. From the school board and other community leadership, public recognition of individual staff and group efforts and success have been reinforcing.
- Encouraging collegiality among teachers diminishes their sense of isolation. Increased opportunities for teachers to work with each other enhanced professionalism and leadership among peers. One of the most important outcomes of this program was that teachers began to view themselves as the instructional experts that they can be and that they are. They saw themselves as knowing what an effective classroom looks like, how they can create that setting, and how they can communication that clearly and simply to the parent community.
- There is no "there". There are always unfinished aspects of a program, an indication that one is working with a fluid, healthy system. For instance, one area we currently are addressing will further enhance and institutionalize the program. Teachers are visiting each other in the classrooms and conducting observations based upon specific content areas in the lessons

they have used. When we initially encouraged these observations, the staff was extremely hesitant. By suggesting that teachers observe specific content such as a mathematics lesson using exponential forms rather than observing how a lesson is taught, the initial hesitation and discomfort of colleagues in an evaluative role diminished.

In summary, the improvement-evaluation dilemma will never totally disappear in schools partially because individuals always will become anxious when their work comes under scrutiny and important consequences hang in the balance. This program has suggested, however, that school districts can minimize teacher anxiety by explicitly taking steps to build trust and create agreed-upon norms and values of the teaching profession. By focusing attention on instruction, staff development linked with teacher evaluation validates those things a teacher does well and becomes a powerful tool for maintaining a teacher's level of expertise. Linking staff development and teacher evaluation also brings tighter congruence between the expectations of principals and teachers. We have hoped to construct an environment that facilitates teacher learning yet insures accountability. In taking our time to do so, we assume that we have instilled organizational change while maintaining a fluid, dynamic dialogue among staff to continually refine and refocus within the organization.

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# 3.1.2 Professional Education Centers: The Interrelatedness of Schools with Teacher Education Programs

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The involvement of schools serving K-12 students in the pre-service preparation of teachers has taken on new meaning in colleges of education in the U.S. as educators (at all levels), legislators and others respond to the education reform movement of the 1980's. The report of the Holmes Group has brought a new focus to this issue as state and national commissions and task forces incorporate the Holmes Group call for clinical schools into their recommendations. Having utilized schools for years in the preparation of teachers, educators might easily ignore this recommendation and claim that an interaction already exists. Some believe that interest in this issue will soon fade as time and fiscal factors involved in implementing the recommendation fall short. This would be a mistake in view of current practices, as educators would miss an opportunity to enhance teacher preparation programs and to create broader relationships with schools.

The task at first seems overwhelming, but speaking from the experience of Southern Illinois University at Carbondale, professional education centers can be developed that bond teacher education programs with schools in positive interactions. The experience of our institution has taught us that the development of professional education centers will not only provide better experiences for pre-service teachers but will build opportunities for relationships with teachers and administrators in areas of research, staff development, and curriculum building.

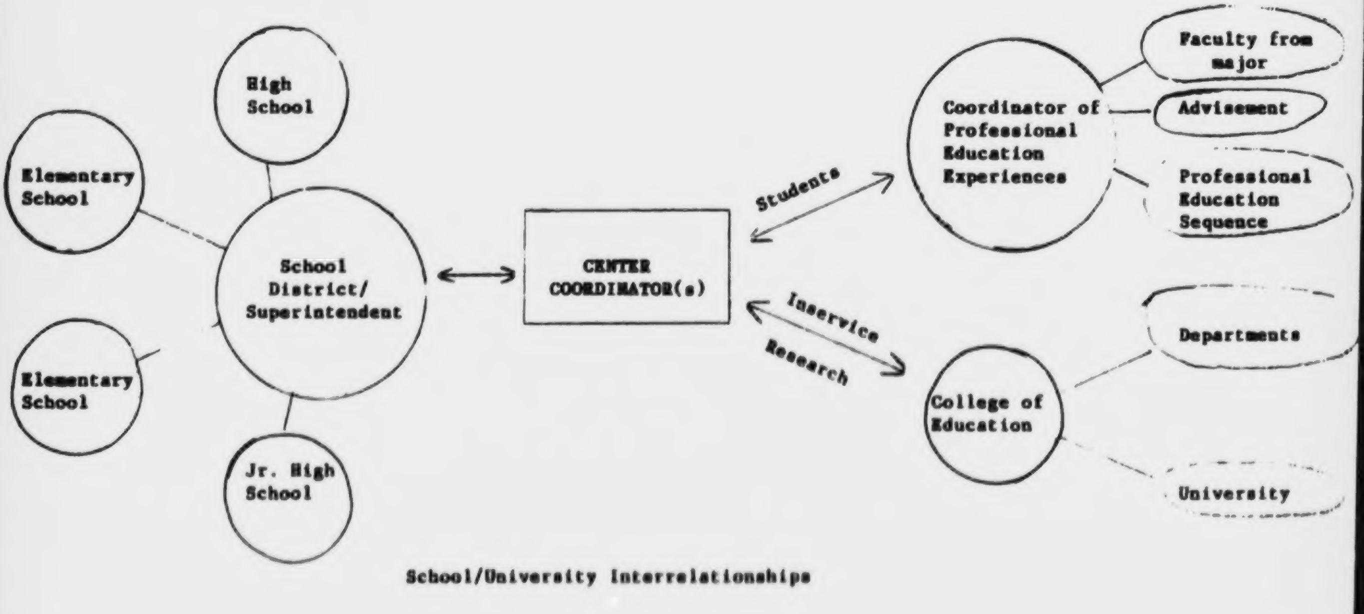
The development of school-based sites for pre-service teacher education has, in fact, evolved very slowly. Until the late sixties, student teaching experiences occurred in isolated schools across a wide ranging territory or in laboratory schools. Most, if any, prestudent teaching experiences or observations occurred in laboratory schools or non-school sites such as YMCA's, Boys'/Girls' Clubs, Scouts, etc. At best a prestudent teaching experience might include a one time lesson plan and teaching assignment. An incredible amount of "road running" by college supervisors was required to provide even limited supervision.

During the mid-60's to mid-70's, many laboratory schools were closed while at the same time prestudent teaching block programs and prestudent teaching field experiences gained considerable attention and credibility. Sites for placing prestudent teachers were developed in area schools. These sites took many forms and developed in relationship to local school conditions. By the late 70's, most states were requiring prestudent field experiences.

SIUC followed this trend in that our laboratory school was closed in 1970. Block programs for early field experiences were developed at the same time for Elementary Education majors. Early field experiences for all other majors soon followed and by 1974 the College of Education implemented a Professional Education Center approach to field work.

The Professional Education Centers (PECs) were envisioned to be more than places to assign prestudent/student teachers. The PECs were planned to provide support to the school districts as well as interaction with teachers, students and administrators. Opportunities for research, curriculum development and staff development were envisioned.

Key to the concept of the PEC was the assignment of Center Coordinators to each PEC. Center Coordinators were full-time continuing faculty with assigned time for research and service. As shown in the diagram below, they served as the major conduit through which university/school activities passed. Each Center Coordinator was assigned to one school district and, in some cases, only to one school. Their role was defined to encompass supervision of prestudent teachers and student teachers, to plan with administrators in the selection of cooperating teachers, to work with cooperating teachers to develop their supervision skills, to provide inservice in the district where appropriate, and to provide requests for services and interaction from the district to the college/university.


High School
Elementary School
Elementary School
School District/ Superintendent
Jr. High School
CENTER COORDINATOR(s)
Students
Inservice
Research
Coordinator of Professional Education Experiences
Faculty from major
Advisement
Professional Education Sequence
College of Education
Departments
University

School/University Interrelationships

There have been a number of benefits from the development of these professional education centers. The primary benefit has been to have full-time faculty on school sites four days a week. The Center Coordinators are known in their centers and treated as part of the school system. They can easily handle difficulties and questions which arise through the week. They form a triad with the student and cooperating teacher for supervision and evaluation. They know the teachers in the centers who are available to supervise students and can recommend placements which are of greatest benefit to the student.

The Center Coordinators also provide a bridge to the university. Administrators and teachers make requests for inservice assistance and research activity. While the Center Coordinator does not provide all of these services, the Center Coordinator can get assistance for the school district through the College or the departments. Faculty responses to these requests provide an opportunity for university faculty to stay in contact with the "real world" of schools.

In addition, teachers and administrators play an important role in program development and revision at the university. Both serve on college committees to provide valuable insights into needs of beginning and experienced teachers. Their input has benefited the teacher education program at SIUC.

There are also activities which could be refined and further developed in the SIUC centers. The burden of supervising students can be overwhelming especially in this time of increased student enrollments. It would be desirable for the Center Coordinators to have more time for interaction with teachers and administrators on staff development and research activities. As we seek to enhance our ten professional education centers, we will involve more faculty in activities related to inservice, curriculum development and research projects.

3.1.3

# The Case Study of a Partnership Coalition in Global Education in Southern California

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## Outline

I. The Background and the Need

II. The Organizational Response

III. The Programmatic Content, Innovations and Activities

IV. The Funding and Other Support

## Glossary of Acronyms

GEPSCA (Global Education Program in Southern California)

SIRC (South-coast International Resource Center)

CSULB (California State University, Long Beach)

CIE (Center for International Education)

CISP (California International Studies Project)

K-12 (Kindergarten through Grade 12)

7.

## I. The Background and the Need

The cooperative partnership known as GEPSCA/SIRC has evolved in the last few years as a response to the critical need of school teachers at the elementary and secondary levels to acquire the skills and knowledge necessary to impart global awareness in their classrooms. Although this program is concentrated in Southern California the conditions of global illiteracy alluded to here are not peculiar to California but afflict all of the United States where a variety of efforts are also underway to cope with the problem. The situation in Southern California, however, is particularly challenging because of the fast-changing demographic profile of the population of that region which projects a tremendous rise in the multi-ethnic mix of its population.

It became increasingly clear that the K-12 schools must begin to integrate more instruction in global education and foreign languages to prepare students for active leadership roles in the future. The need was identified at the elementary and secondary levels for a global education curriculum which consists of five broad content objectives to help students:

(1) Understand global events by examining them in relationship to their historical, economic, geographical and socio-political contexts;

(2) Appreciate both cultural diversity and universal human values;

(3) Recognize that events may be interpreted from multiple perspectives;

(4) Become aware of the interconnectedness or interdependence of human undertakings on every level--economic, military, governmental and ideological; and

(5) Seek conflict resolution through peaceful means and collaborative problems-solving.

## II. The Organizational Response

In August 1983, California State University, Long Beach (CSULB) expressed its strong commitment to international education through its Master Plan and translated this commitment into practice by creating within the Academic Affairs Division of the university its new Center for International Education (CIE). During its formative year the latter identified a number of program priorities which included amongst others the internationalization of the curriculum, the development of international educational linkages with other

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See Glossary note for full names of Acronyms countries, international student and professorial exchanges and cooperative partnerships with the business community and the K-12 schools. It is with the latter that this brief paper is concerned.

The concept which was deemed essential to respond to organizationally was the need articulated in Section I, namely to create a leadership coalition of the parties primarily able to effect change and to seek resources to accomplish the objectives of the program. The goal was to help school teachers acquire the skills and knowledge which they would in turn impart to the children in their classrooms and beyond.

A group of about 15 volunteers, mostly school teachers interested in global education, were identified from a variety of neighboring schools and the Center for International Education (CIE) convened them to discuss the needs and possible programs. This became the Task Force on Global Education in Southern California (GEPSCA). Simultaneously, CIE consulted widely with a number of school superintendents and a few influential business persons and community leaders and these were convened as an Advisory Board by the President of California State University, Long Beach (CSULB) and became the GEPSCA Advisory Board.

With the establishment of the GEPSCA Board and the GEPSCA Task Force the organizational framework had been established at the various essential levels: K-12, university, community college, business and other supportive groups. In 1986 the State of California legislated funding for Centers to be selected to provide leadership and services in global education and the cooperative partnership already in motion as described above was selected by Stanford University, the administrative agent, as one of the resource centers for the State of California. The funding received from the State was mostly used to cover the activities of the partnership-coalition with three school districts and the vehicle was named SIRC (Southern California International Resource Center) and included the following organizational components: California State University, Long Beach; Pegasus, Inc. (a privately-funded operation for helping gifted secondary school children; Project Radius (University of California, Irvine) and three school districts: Long Beach Unified, Los Alamitos and Huntington Beach Union.

Thus SIRC worked intensively with the teachers in those three school districts while GEPSCA continued its outreach activities in the region as a whole. The integration of GEPSCA and SIRC is complete since they have the same Board and the same staff.

Also to be noted is that the GEPSCA/SIRC organizational framework brought together school administrators, the universities, the community college of Long Beach, the State Department of Education, the school teachers, the business community and other supporting groups and influential citizens.

## III. The Programmatic Concepts, Innovations and Activities

The essential concept implemented was to train a cadre of teachers from the various schools who would in turn become master-teachers for their colleagues.

A series of Skills Seminars and Workshops are held frequently during the year and these are supplemented by a three-week Institute on global education in the summer and other shorter institutes as appropriate (e.g. a one-week Institute on the integration of foreign language and international studies and another on "Human Rights, Ethics and Genocide".)

The emphasis is on concepts, attitudes, curriculum and international-intercultural understanding.

One of the most innovative features of this program has been the introduction of a Globemobile which represents a mobile resource materials center which can travel from school to school to assist interested teachers in their valuable work in global education in the classroom as well as in stimulating other teachers and administrators in the K-12 schools.

While the GEPSCA/SIRC programs have involved hundreds of teachers already, the multiplier effect involved enables us to state that these programs have already reached thousands of children.

## IV. Funding and Other Support

The GEPSCA/SIRC program started with no funds and through the commitment and dedication of a few individuals. It has in the space of three or four years evolved into a highly respected quality program with basic funding from the State of California and the Danforth Foundation and with matching funds from the business community and private citizens. The schools themselves make a relatively modest but essential contribution through release time for their teachers to participate in the Skills Seminars and Workshops. In addition, teachers taking the three-week summer Global Awareness Institute gain graduate credit and the program, therefore, offers staff development support.

A non-financial but tremendously important testimonial came in February 1988 when the City Council of Long Beach passed unanimously the following resolution: "The Long Beach City Council commends and supports the efforts of the Global Education Program in Southern California (GEPSCA) in assisting K-12 school teachers and their students in acquiring global awareness and an appreciation of cultural diversity and of the interdependence of humankind."

# A Collaborative Model For Continuing Teacher Development For Elementary Physical Education Teachers

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The call for excellence in education extends to all subjects at all educational levels. Collaborative projects for developing continuing teacher development programs involving teacher-education institutions and public school systems have the potential to solve some of the pervasive problems in preservice and inservice education. Preservice programs are frequently criticized for being too theoretical; inservice programs often are cited as being too simplistic and lacking a firm theoretical foundation. This paper describes a collaborative project between the Sarasota County, Florida, U.S.A. schools and the Department of Physical Education at the University of South Florida, Tampa, Florida, U.S.A. The project was initially designed as a curriculum adoption and implementation model for elementary school physical education, but emerged as a broader model for preservice education and inservice education for elementary school physical education specialists. The continuing teacher development segment of the project is in its third year, and plans have been formulated to develop materials and conduct additional training for practicing teachers to assist in the preservice program. A progress report on this innovative project was selected as a model for applying current curriculum theory to professional practice by the Curriculum and Instruction Academy of the National Association for Sport and Physical Education, American Alliance for Health, Physical Education, Recreation and Dance.

**Project Planning.** In addition to the Sarasota County Schools and the Department of Physical Education at the University of South Florida, the Florida Department of Education played a critical role in the initiation of this project. At the request of the Sarasota School District, the Department of Education conducted an "audit" of its elementary school physical education programs. "Audits" are conducted by the Department of Education on a regular basis, but school districts may request special "audits" as a form of technical assistance in program evaluation. One recommendation from this "audit" was to develop a district-wide curriculum for elementary school physical education with the assistance of a university consultant. Sarasota County decided to act on this recommendation and allocated resources to the project. The resources were primarily in the form of Teacher Education Center (TEC) hours which are allocated to the school districts of the State of Florida by the Florida Department of Education for the continuing development of teachers. Counties can use these hours for contracting for university faculty time to serve as consultants to the schools. Faculty assigned to TEC projects can be paid additional consultant fees, or can have the assignment as part of their regular assigned duties. With the TEC resources allocated, the supervisor of physical education from Sarasota County and a faculty member from the Department of Physical Education at the University of South Florida (USF) held several initial planning meetings to clearly outline the project. This was a critical step, and one that often is not taken. When initial planning is insufficient and expectations unclear, consultants and clients frequently are dissatisfied with the outcomes. Clear and ongoing communication has been a hallmark of this project. A strategy was designed for the project which included curriculum adoption, curriculum implementation, administrative support, and support of preservice teacher-education.

**Curriculum Adoption.** An initial decision was made to adopt or adapt an already developed curriculum rather than defining the project as a curriculum writing task. One regular, certified physical education teacher was selected from each of the county's 17 elementary schools to serve on the curriculum adoption committee. This committee met for three full days, one day per month, during the regular school day. Substitutes were provided for their schools during this time. The teachers were responsible for reporting the progress of the committee to their school-based colleagues, and for seeking their contributions to the deliberations. This was accomplished and was a major factor in developing "ownership" and commitment to the project. The first decision which was made was to define the curriculum as a framework for program development which would not require every teacher to teach the same content in the same way. Performance standards which would describe student objectives would be identified in order to comply with county policy for all subjects. Teachers would be viewed as professionals who would design their own programs to fit the curriculum framework. Program design would accommodate unique situational parameters without eroding student performance standards.

Prior to reviewing existing curriculum materials, the curriculum committee studied curriculum theory. This step was taken based on the assumption that good theory is very practical and would assist the committee in making a more informed decision. It was also based on the assumption that practicing teachers view themselves as professionals with specialized knowledge that is used in making professional decisions about what and how they do their work. The theory selected for study was that of Drs. Jewett and Bain as developed in their book, *The Curriculum Process in Physical Education*. Specifically, the notion of curriculum models was explained and discussed. This concept would permit the county to develop a uniform set of performance standards and still permit, indeed require, school-based decisions on specific content and methodology. Several models were reviewed including personal meaning, developmental, kinesiological studies, movement education, play learning, and physical fitness models. The value base for each curriculum model was identified and their frameworks were viewed as the mechanism for bridging the gap between beliefs and practice.

Following the discussions on models, which focused on developing teachers abilities to evaluate, more critically, curriculum materials, three practicing elementary physical education teachers were brought to Sarasota . This step was designed to satisfy the persistent need of teachers to apply the test of practicality to any educational innovation. Each of these teachers uses a curriculum model to design her program. They explained how they used their models and emphasized how practical the models were for them in their day to day planning and teaching. The frameworks of each model assisted them in making practical program decisions for both long and short term planning.

It was now apparent that before any curriculum adoption decision could be made, the teachers must identify their own beliefs about physical education for children. Using a modified group problem solving technique a draft version of a program philosophy was produced. This step was difficult but important to the adoption process. This philosophy served to guide the adoption process and was not finalized until later in the adoption process. In addition to their philosophy, the teachers developed a list of additional criteria to use to evaluate available curricula. Each curriculum reviewed was evaluated by each teacher using the list of criteria. Time for study and consultations was provided to insure that each teacher fully understood the curriculum models being considered. A summary of the individual teacher evaluations was provided to the committee and a lengthy discussion ensued. Later, the county supervisor asked if the committee members were ready to vote to adopt a curriculum model. They stated that they were ready and voted to adopt a developmental model as described in the text *Meaningful Movement for Children* by Hoffman, Young, and Klesius. A formal vote was taken to validate the decision, and both the county supervisor and the university consultant were comfortable that consensus had been reached. It was clear that the teachers felt that they had made a very professional and informed decision, and the prospects for a successful implementation were excellent.

**Curriculum Implementation.** Once the adoption process was completed, teachers were required to use the curriculum model to design their programs. Support for this task was provided by purchasing planning materials such as text books and lesson plan books, and by providing adequate equipment for each school. The most powerful support however, was a series of workshops and on-site monitoring/consultation with the teachers. USF faculty visited schools and observed and consulted with teachers who were expected to "try out" the new curriculum. The content and methodology were presented at workshops preceding the on-site visits. Four tenets emerged as the basis of this implementation process. They were: 1) the process would be a participatory model in that teacher's input would be sought and valued, 2) participants would be expected to field test the content presented in the workshops, 3) participants and consultants would work together on site in a collaborative mode to assist with field-testing and implementation. Some accountability would be built in so that not only those who were in complete agreement with the curriculum, but those who were still hesitant would be trying out the new materials, 4) administrative support in the form of positive response and resources would be provided.

After-school workshops were held twice a month in which content and methodology were presented as examples of how each part of the curriculum model could be implemented. Teachers were expected to work with these concepts and activities for the following two weeks. At the next workshop, time was set aside to discuss the teachers' experiences with this part of the curriculum. Teachers shared successes and partial successes and grew from each others experiences. Time was also provided for some planning for the next two weeks at the end of each workshop. Teachers became great supporters of each others efforts and this support was useful in helping some of the hesitant teachers to give the new curriculum a good try. The major part of each workshop however, was presentation and discussion of a specific part of the curriculum and participation in lessons designed to meet some of the performance standards.

On-site monitoring/consultation occurred in two stages. Initially, the USF faculty gathered some base-line data and acted in a purely supportive role. As they continued to visit and were perceived more as collaborators than as supervisors, the teachers began to ask for more specific feedback about both productive and not-so-productive practices. While the on-site monitoring became welcomed by the teachers, there was concern that they would become dependent on the consultants. The need to build a structure for continued self-assessment after the main project had terminated became apparent. A self-monitoring assessment checklist (SMAC) form was developed and the teachers were encouraged to use this to continue to grow in their ability to implement the new curriculum. Teachers were asked to complete one of these forms prior to visitations by the consultants. More work needs to be done on this form and on the process to assist teachers in becoming students of their own teaching. There are still some teachers who would not be viewed as full fledged adopters of the curriculum, but the on-site monitoring provided the opportunity to individualize the continuing professional development activities for them.

**Administrative Support.** The success of any innovation or inservice program is known to be dependent on administrative support. Such support comes in a variety of ways. Not only has support been provided by purchasing materials and equipment, and planning materials such as text books and manuals, but consultant help was also provided. Teachers were also assisted financially to attend professional meetings and other professional workshops. One of the most powerful forms of support was the professional manner in which the teachers were involved throughout the project. Frequent comments were made by teachers on how much they appreciated being treated as professionals. In addition to the support already provided, two additional forms of support are being planned and implemented at this time.

An administrative handbook is being developed to assist in the implementation of the curriculum. County policies regarding participation and management of the program are being developed by the elementary physical education teachers and the administrators in Sarasota. The elementary school principals are also a key to successful implementation of any new project. Thus, a workshop for the principals is being planned and will be conducted this year. A "principal's checklist" is also being developed to assist them in providing support for the teachers in their schools.

**Preservice Education.** A next step in this project is to provide training in clinical supervision skills for the elementary school physical education teachers who would like to become members of the preservice teacher-education team. These teachers would be credentialled to supervise preservice teachers in their full time internship experiences. Curriculum materials being developed in Sarasota County would also be used in the USF physical education teacher-education program since they are congruent with the developmental model for elementary school physical education which the preservice students are learning to implement.

A collaborative effort for the professional development of teachers which ties preservice and inservice education together can eliminate many of the persistent problems in teacher development. The Sarasota project is an exciting beginning. USF can use Sarasota County as an example of school physical education programs which are based on current curriculum theory. Sarasota County can call on USF to provide theoretical support for program development which has been tested in real school settings. Preservice interns and inservice teachers can communicate clearly and work together productively since the preservice teacher-education program and the real world program in the schools are congruent. As a collaborative model, the Sarasota project demonstrates that teacher development can be viewed as a process that links theory and practice, and preservice and inservice education. It promises to be a model that works to insure the best possible programs for our students.

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## 3.2.1 Societal Needs and Teacher Educator Responses

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The 1983 report, A Nation at Risk opened a new round of reform movements in the United States. One recent count showed that there were some 30 national reports and over 300 task forces on education. Although the dramatic push for reform has diminished in intensity, there are still powerful forces such as the Holmes Group and the Carnegie Foundation which continue their efforts toward reform.

At the K-12 level, reformers have stated that we must improve public school student performance in reading, writing, speaking, analyzing, computing, and problem solving; increase knowledge of and engagement in our physical, social, political, and ethical worlds; and develop character and responsibility. At the level of teacher preparation programs, Patricia Cross states that most reformists want to influence teacher education institutions by:

1. Finding more excellent people to enter teaching
2. Raising admission requirements
3. Selecting better students for Colleges of Education
4. Providing scholarships for high achievers

She also states that most reformists want the curriculum cleaned up; educational goals better articulated; more use of standardized tests; and that prospective teachers should study a core of common and sequenced learning in courses.

Some thoughtful educators have questioned these calls for reform in the face of an increasing minority population in public schools and societal needs for technological and service oriented skills. In addition, the alarming statistics about dropouts from high school signal serious problems with regard to the interest, motivation, and success of students in our public schools.

The continued call for reforms creates enormous difficulties for teacher educators as well as social theorists who worry about both short and long term results that affect a large number of individuals in our society. The focus of the concern is directed toward potential dropouts, low achievers, and those who have already left the school environment.

The questions raised in this paper are both philosophical and sociological in nature and revolve around issues of elitism, equality of opportunity, social and individual needs in a community structure that is increasingly driven by technological and service needs.

Leaders today, whether politicians or educators, must recall some of our educational history as they consider the task of reforming the systems of education in the U.S. We must not forget the Common School movement of the 1820s-40s, the Compulsory School laws beginning in 1852, the work of many commissions in the early 20th century best characterized by those who developed the Seven Cardinal Principles.

We need only to look at some of the federal government initiatives in the 20th century beginning with the G.I. bill, the Civil Rights acts, and those pieces of legislation that affect the handicapped, minorities, and student rights to recognize the concept of equality of educational opportunity. In sharp contrast are the more recent reform movements, especially at the K-12 levels, which at least give the appearance of moving away from the Common School concept to an elitism based upon intellect. We are certainly not against improving the basic skills of students, but we must not forget the serious problems for those who are at the low end of the achievement scale. They, too, will become a part of our society, and the question that concerns us is whether they will be contributing members, or become social and economic burdens for the rest? We must be certain that the calls for reform do not exclude those of less ability and thereby deny access to educational opportunities.

There is little doubt that U.S. society is increasingly technically and service directed. And yet, at the present time, the drop-out rate from high school in the U.S. is roughly 25 percent (approximately 11 million students a year). When one considers that estimates of the illiteracy rate among American workers ranges as high as 20 percent, then we face serious problems. Also, a recent report from the American Association of Community and Junior Colleges estimates that technical training beyond high school will be required in three out of four jobs by the 1990s. Job shrinkage in the 1980s is forcing older workers to retire early or to give up the search for new jobs.

The number of workers ages 16 to 24 will diminish from 30 percent of the U.S. population recorded in 1985 to approximately 16 percent in the year 2000. Yet 25 percent of ninth graders will not graduate from high school. In economic terms, this will cost the nation $240 billion in lost revenue each year. A former Secretary of Labor stated that millions of young workers fail to get jobs or better ones because of their lack of competency in reading, writing, oral communication, and computation.

When one considers these problems and the previously cited calls for reform of education, it raises some serious questions about the nature of the reform movement. From our perspective, the push for increased competencies suggests an increasing number of dropouts as well as an increase in the rate of illiteracy. We believe it is time to look at the reform of education in a way that does not deny access, promotes equality of opportunity, and increases the skills and abilities of all individuals. What this implies is that reform must be viewed with the idea that all levels and areas of education must be considered important and improved, not merely replaced with increased rigor in academics.

Despite our pessimism we see some hope based upon two very recent reports by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching and the Ford Foundation. These reports suggest some fundamental changes for schools. The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching in its study of six urban districts, finds that education reform is overlooking inner-city students who need the most help.

The foundation visited schools in Chicago, Cleveland, Houston, Los Angeles, New Orleans and New York. Recommendations:

- People need to realize that all children can learn.
- Schools need more autonomy, but officials should intervene or close schools when they continue to fail.
- Urban schools need to refurbish facilities and teaching strategies, offering varied courses and degree options.
- Parents, business and government must unite to improve urban schools.

A Ford Foundations study stated that "Because we have failed to see poor skills as a root cause of these explosive social problems, we haven't had much success in solving them," reports the study.

It calls for doubling federal funding for the Head Start program within five years and offering remedial education to parents of needy children. Other recommendations:

- States should fund job-training for dropouts.
- Schools should expand vocational training and develop job-apprenticeship programs.
- Federal summer job programs should offer remedial education.

These new voices portend a more balanced view about possible reform of education in the U.S. With these new thrusts it may be that the philosophical and sociological heritage of education has a chance to survive.

# 3.2.2 PREMISES FOR CHANGE IN TEACHER PREPARATION

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In recent years, a plethora of national and state reports has engendered greater public scrutiny of public education in the U.S.A. Among other topics, discussion has focused on the nature, quality, and effectiveness of schools; the curriculum; and appropriateness of administrative structures. More recently the discussion has turned to issues concerning the quality of teachers, their preparation, and their ability to adequately prepare young people for the twenty-first century. Proposals for changing the ways teachers are prepared are being made and consideration of their efficacy debated. This paper is presented to help create a multi-national dialogue on these issues which is currently lacking. Such a dialogue will broaden available options and increase the value of proposed changes.

## SELECTING AND PREPARING TEACHERS

The selection and preparation of teachers in any society is a critical exercise that involves many segments of society. Teachers represent the aspirations and needs of society, share the value system(s), prepare leaders, endeavor to resolve society's problems, and impact the lives of each individual they teach. In recognition of the importance of this task complex processes have been established to select, prepare, and maintain the effectiveness of educators in schools.

In the U.S. the involvement in teacher preparation of many agencies, interest groups, and individuals is based on a commitment to citizen participation and local control of education. It is designed to ensure that schools meet the needs of society as they are continually redefined and is a significant reason for the high quality of our schools and achievements of our young people.

In Minnesota, this process begins with the legislative and administrative branches of government who create the laws and agencies that govern the licensing of teachers. Within legislative guidelines, the Board of Teaching (BOT) seeks input from all interested parties, sets licensure requirements and ensures that standards are maintained. The BOT then authorizes Bachelors degree granting institutions to select and prepare individuals for teaching in line with licensure rules. Through program review the BOT and State Department of Education monitor the effectiveness and ability of these institutions to prepare teachers. This process involves liberal arts and teacher education faculty, educators in the schools, students, and members of the broader community.

Collegiate programs are further assessed by the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) to ensure that they meet national standards for quality. And, these judgments are based, in part, on standards set by regional accrediting agencies and national organizations representing the various subjects taught in K-12 schools.

An individual recommended for teaching by a college is granted an initial (two year) license by the state. The prospective teacher must then meet the needs and quality standards of a local school district faculty, administration, and elected school board before entering the classroom as a teacher.

School districts then hold responsibility for assessing the work of teachers they hire. Their recommendations determine who shall receive tenure and whether a continuing license will be granted. The later decision is based on district committee review of teacher performance in light of state requirements and acceptance by the state. This review process continues throughout a teacher's career.

Like no other profession, educators are prepared through a public process that neither is nor has been under the sole control of any one group. It is a process that brings together the perspectives of any individual or agency concerned with the education of young people, includes checks and balances, opportunities to effect change, and shared involvement and responsibility. It requires that the total society take responsibility for the quality and effectiveness of its teachers and schools.

As with any participatory process, questions are raised about its effectiveness and the quality of results. Such human endeavors have limited information on which to make judgments. They require compromise to accommodate the widest possible range of views, and to assure that equity is maintained and decisions are open to change as new information and insights develop.

## QUALITY TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMS

Recently, discussions of teacher quality have taken impetus from two groups. Those who believe that the quality of the teaching force is in decline and those who believe that educators need more extensive preparation and support to be effective. Both groups lack complete data and often rely on subjective perceptions to substantiate their opinions. As a result many conclusions are built on questionable assertions with little, if any, documentation presented in support. And, too often the discussion involves pointing the finger at "evil" and seeking scapegoats rather than clarifying issues, defining problems, and seeking ways of ensuring a quality educational system.

If the premise that teachers are not capable of adequately preparing young people for the twenty-first century is accepted, it follows that improvements must be made in their preparation. Using this reasoning, various individuals and commissions have focused attention on the collegiate component of teacher preparation and called for change in teacher education requirements and programs.

Three reports are of particular relevance to this discussion. The Holmes report (Tomorrow's Teachers) representing the views of deans of colleges of education at research universities. The Report of the Task Force on Teaching as a Profession (the Carnegie report) representing corporate, political, and educational views. And, in Minnesota, the Minnesota Board of Teaching, Minnesota Higher Education Coordinating Board Report of the Task Force on Teacher Education for Minnesota's Future.

When considering the recommendations in these reports it is important to remember that colleges play only one, albeit significant, part in the total preparation and renewal of the teaching force. In particular, they make the initial selection of individuals who may enter the profession, initiate the professional development of those individuals, and conduct research into educational issues and apply the results. In completing their tasks college faculty are restricted by limitations on institutional resources, strictures in licensure requirements, and the need to play conflicting roles - that of teacher operating on the premise that all individuals can learn, and that of judge by deciding who will be recommended for teaching.

In general, the reports agree that training is necessary for teachers to be effective, a liberal arts based bachelor's degree is important, and state licensure should continue. They have recommended more extensive preparation of teachers, stricter entry requirements, close cooperation between liberal arts and teacher education faculty and school personnel, and that prospective teachers develop the sense of entering the profession.

A variety of means and instructional models for preparing individuals to enter the profession have been posited and are under current discussion. Besides leaving things as they are, they include: 1) continue with current practices, but require the schools to shoulder their responsibility for continuing teacher training through at least the initial years of employment; 2) use the undergraduate experience to begin teacher preparation and an internship and examination to determine if licensure will be granted; 3) require a post baccalaureate fifth year teacher education program leading to licensure and a masters degree in teaching, or add a sixth year internship or full time teaching to earn the masters degree; and 4) prepare bachelor's degree holders for licensure during the first years of teaching under the supervision of school officials in the local community. Underlying these proposals is the belief that more knowledge is required of new teachers and that more time in training will assure this knowledge is attained and that requisite abilities will be demonstrated.

Whether current practice needs to be radically changed, whether alternative approaches would be any more effective, whether enough teachers would be available to meet future needs, and whether communities are ready and willing to pay for the added cost of more extensively trained educators are only some of the questions being raised as these proposals are presented.

## THE CHALLENGE OF CHANGE IN TEACHER EDUCATION

Whatever the cause or stimuli for change, the opportunity for significant reconsideration of current educational practices and change comes only sporadically and often unexpectedly. Such an opportunity exists today. It is an exciting time, but one in which real, not imaginary concerns must be focused on; changes are made without losing that which is valued; and there is assurance that proposals effectively respond to the needs and concerns of society.

In responding to this challenge of change a set of premises, such as the following, are needed to guide thinking and help assure that effective teachers are in our schools.

1) Decisions must be based on, and respond to, a recognition of the interdependent nature of any society and of any society's interdependent relationships in the world.

2) A commitment to the pursuit of knowledge and value of education must

be held by all members of the society.

3) Disparities in access to quality education must be narrowed.

4) The effectiveness of instruction must not be compromised by creating too great a gulf between the experience of educators and needs of young people.

5) Broad participation in the teacher training process must be maintained and all participants must accept responsibility for the role they play.

6) Proposed changes must meet the criterion of improving the effectiveness of instruction.

7) The opportunity to enter the teaching profession must be opened to all segments of the society.

8) A strong liberal arts experience must be part of teacher preparation.

Deciding how to prepare teachers is a unique human endeavor out of which effective compromise, not perfection, is to be expected. In the zealousness to respond to challenges educators must guard against pressure to implement inappropriate models for the professional training of educators.

These decisions must be based on the best information available and be guided by that which best serves the needs of young people and society. Our choices will be judged by the future.

## CONCLUSION

Is our nation at risk? Are our young people being adequately prepared? Are standards declining? Are teachers as good as they should be? Should we change the way teachers are prepared? By raising and forming responses to these and similar questions educators have joined politicians, business leaders, parents and others in the discussion concerning the quality of schools and the service they render society.

Some of these questions and recommendations have become part of the ongoing effort to reassess the standards and procedures society uses to select and prepare teachers. This is as it has been and should be. The continued vitality and effectiveness of efforts to prepare teachers for children depends on these questions being raised. As responses are developed and changes formulated we must assure that equity and opportunity are increased, that thoughtful deliberation and group goals take precedence over self interest and expediency, and that all individuals have the chance to achieve their ambition as citizens of their nation and world.

It is a unique time in the education and teacher education communities as fundamental questions are raised about the appropriateness of current educational systems and their ability to accomplish what is expected of them. The challenge and opportunity is ours.

## 3.2.3 LOOSE CONNECTIONS IN THE CONCEPTUALIZATION OF TEACHER EDUCATION : SOME CRITICAL DILEMMAS

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Teacher educators often seemed bemused, occupying an undefined no-person's-land between the primary and secondary schools, work sites for their students, on the one hand, and the universities, centres of knowledge from which they and their students must draw, on the other. Furthermore, society has placed extraordinary expectations on them to not only purvey the essence of the best knowledge but also to be experts on how to teach and be judges of what is likely to make a good teacher. Finally they occupy a position of being highly vulnerable in that not only do they model their own theories of teaching (or contravert themselves) daily but they are highly visible to their students, to teachers in schools and to bureaucrats. They are subject to criticism from every quarter. It is therefore not surprising that they put masks over their activities, eschew critical discussion on their methodologies and ideologies, take a defensive stance, patch up rather than justify or delve deeply into their procedures. They re doomed to failure, not direct enough for their students, not sceptical or scholarly enough for the universities, not in touch enough with the real world of schools and the chalk face for school teachers.

This sewing together, often without a pattern, of the several sets of highly differentiated theory with unanalysed notions of 'experience' and 'integration' results often in incoherence.

We do not blame teacher educators for their condition but rather draw attention to the impossible task society has traditionally set them. We suggest that there are no superficial solutions, that teacher educators have to deconstruct their own situation, look at how they came to be in the current predicament and devise principles to remedy the situation.

The extent of this difficult task can be seen from the following quotation from Marsh (Marsh 1984):

> "I. Personal Characteristics:
> The Well-Educated Person
> e.g. mastery of a range of knowledge
> e.g. valuing of excellence
> e.g. flexibility and adaptability.
> II. Professional Characteristics:
> A: Professional Development - e.g. emergent philosophy of education
> B: Understanding of Education as Process - e.g. knowledge of educational foundations
> C: Pedagogical skills and knowledge - e.g. communication skills
> D: Interactions with other staff - e.g. develop appropriate relationships with administrators
> E: Interactions with Parents/Community - e.g. appropriate attitudes to parents/community.
> F: Role as Member of School Community - e.g. contribute to extra-curricular program.
> (After Auchmuty 1984)"

We could spend much time on discussing how the differing ideologies epistemologies and methodologies to be found in that set could be integrated in a three or four year course in a meaningful way. Suffice it to say that it looks almost impossible. Instead we will look at the equally difficult task of integrating on-campus courses of pre-service education within the world of teacher work through the concept of experience. We look first at the myth that College work should fit teachers for schools and secondly at the role of credentials in teacher control. Given some understanding of this critical context it might then be possible to construct a program that could be justified.

One major assumption among teacher educators is that teacher education programs prepare neophyte teachers for teaching. This assumption most often has two parts to it. The first is that what happens on campus is so structured and arranged that it significantly mirrors or reflects or corresponds with what is in schools. On-campus work then is thought to have a direct relationship with work in schools. The second part of the assumption is that on-campus courses contribute to the preparation of new teachers because they produce appropriate modes of behaviour and social imagery for use by practising teachers.

This belief in the connections between the teaching process of teaching teachers and the 'world of teacher work' is probably shared by radical and conservative members of the teacher education community. Thus, radical educators see a double determination in teacher education programs. Schools see themselves connected directly with the sphere of production, however mediated, and any attempt to prepare teachers in the image of schools is then a further exemplar of the fundamental principle of reproduction. The conservative view, glossed as 'survival' or 'realism', is based on producing a close fit between College and school. Both camps uphold the belief in the 'necessary' connection between teacher education programs and teacher work in the schools. While sharing the *principle*, they differ on its explanation and interpretation and on the content they prepare for education processes on-campus.

We wish to propose that the connection is neither logically nor empirically necessary but is based on ideological and self-interested connections. We do this by raising two issues, namely the connections between teacher education programs and teacher work; and the connections between teacher credentials and teaching.

### Teacher education programs and teacher work

A major issue in the discussion of teacher education (hereafter TE) is the relationship between the effects of teacher education and teaching (hereafter T): that is, the *transformation of persons* in the period of TE, to the filling of a place in the division of labour, T, to undertake the teachers' *occupation* namely a set of job tasks required in the work situation. The enduring 'problem' is that beginning teachers "ignore or forget" (Evans 1987: 3) much of their TE course work knowledge, skills and attitudes and rely instead on experience gathered on the job, on colleague advice and on memories of their own schooling. Evans (1987: 4) suggests that these circumstances call for "a close relationship between course-work and practice teaching in the pre-service years" and "some extension of initial training into the early years of teaching" if the on-campus course is to be at all effective.

It is the unexamined basis of this claim that we dispute. The claim assumes an *indexical* (Leach 1976; Smith 1979; Moore 1984) relationship between TE programs and T such that TE programs can, in principle, effect the knowledge, skills, and identity of persons and in turn determine the form of work they will undertake in the social relations of T. Once the principle is taken for granted in the discourses of TE, then TE is legitimated by the taken-for-granted relationship itself. Much of the discussion and recommendations of TE reports (eg Coulter and Ingerson, 1984 *Project 21*) proceed on the assumption that the relationship exists. They move quickly to administrative structures and program content confident that once the *mix* of such elements is right, then TE programs will have the intended effects on new teachers and T.

But the reports and critical writing about TE point to the crucial status of 'experience': teachers 'learn on the job' and 'learning by experience seems to be a *necessary* condition for teachers' (Evans 1987: 4-5 [emphasis added]). 'Experience' is an explanatory category which undermines both the assumed link and the effectivity claims of TE, and creates the need for the contemporary interest in 'induction' programs and TE involvement in in-service work. The use of 'necessary' posits a very strong but unverified causal connection.

The induction claim is instructive because it rests on the assumed development in new T's of quite narrow occupational skills, knowledge and attitudes which provide a bag of tricks of a generalised nature to be extended by later study. The claim is however problematic. It is difficult to arrive at a set of generic skills (etc) that has salience across the sectors of a functionally differentiated education system, or even within sub-sectors. Teacher educators have a plurality of view on this issue. Again, if the general skills turn were valid, then new graduates ought to be advantaged in their occupational roles, having been recently prepared in the latest of them. Further, the category of 'experience' should be *less* relevant to recent graduates who, armed with the latest skills and knowledge and recent practicums, would have an advantage over older, more experienced teachers whose occupational competence is out of date. Finally, the labour market status of new graduates would be comparatively strong as employers sought to maximise the quality and efficiency of the teacher labour force. If, let us propose, 'experience' *is* a 'necessary condition for teachers', then it follows that claims for the *extension* of TE programs, at the pre-service stage or into the early years of teaching, which are based on notions of necessary knowledge, skills or identity formation, are questionable. Nor are the reverse claims persuasive, namely that because schools are 'changing', then TE programs need to be re-structured. The status of the claims, their conditions of emergence and their wide circulation, are then representations of enduring conceptual dilemmas in TE policy.

## Teacher education credentials and teacher work

There has been a shift from 2 to 3 year minimum qualifications for teachers in Australia in recent years. TE reports in the same period have been particularly interested in teacher credentials, noticeably with the possibility of extending the pre-service period as part of a concept of professionalisation. It seems to us that there has been a conflation of credentials with occupation in the official discourse of TE, so that the two are linked in a strong sense. Part of the working out of this conflation is the proliferation of teacher awards connected to sub-fields of the T field.

Credentials act as a screening device for employers and they function as a legitimisation of a teacher's authority. Either way, they provide an inclusionary/exclusionary boundary maintenance mechanism which both narrows the potential employment opportunities of graduates and creates impermeable barriers between schools and the wider society. But their links with T are rather less obvious.

To be more specific, if particular levels of schooling or particular subjects/disciplines require well delineated knowledge, skills, attitudes, dispositions etc; and if TE is where persons acquire these attributes [eg B.Ec, Dip.Ed; B.Ed (Early Childhood)], then one could predict that schools would exhibit strong insulation between types of teacher distinguished by their credentials. Specialist teachers may well exist in particular sectors of the T spectrum, but there is considerable evidence in the Australian setting for believing that teachers are seen by employers as ***substitutable***. Indeed, the notions of 'flexibility' and 'adaptability' are central to the discourse of the 'new vocational' re-structuring in education everywhere (eg Apple 1986; Moore 1987; *P-10 Curriculum Framework*) leading to the conclusion that substitutability will be intentionally enshrined in TE and employment practices in the future.

Further, if TE is a preparation (in the strong sense identified earlier) for T, and if persons are allocated to positions (eg secondary economics teacher, early childhood teacher, etc) which have required specific (non-general) occupational tasks, on the basis of TE, *work experience* should *reinforce* what is developed in TE and accredited by it. On the contrary, a major dilemma for TE is the lack of continuity and the salience of 'experience' as the source of alternative knowledge, skills, dispositions etc. The source of teacher 'expertise', rather than *access*, lies beyond the control of TE.

While this conclusion may worry some teacher educators, the lack of a direct link between 'professional preparation', credentials and occupation has been well documented in other areas of work (see Lockwood 1958; Dore 1976; Collins 1979). The point to be taken is twofold: first, the never`ending struggle by teacher educators and TE policy writers to 'fit' TE to the 'world of work' is mistaken in its assumptions; and second, the claims of teacher educators that more and higher credentials are needed for teachers, under the rubric of 'professionalism', may well be better explained as a struggle for control over labour market resources and occupational monopoly. To this extent, tinkering with TE and T may well be just that and ultimately a futile exercise. The conceptual dilemmas of TE then may be seen as part of the 'problem' of TE.

## New directions

We are not arguing that TE is impossible, or that there ought not be some connections with 'real' teaching, but we are of the view that the present dominant forms of TE are incoherent. This is not surprising in view of the failure of teacher educators or report writers to address the question of what was meant by 'experience', 'theory', 'integration' etc.etc., except at a superficial level and, even more seriously, what they mean by notions such as 'personal development', 'study of a discipline', 'cultural foundations' and other myths, and especially how we see the connections between the various elements in the process connected with each other and with the world of teacher work.

A second and more serious concern is that any guidance as to what areprinciples of integration is lacking. Random connections are not good enough. Integration of say, 'theory' with 'experience' with the 'work can be done in a hundred different ways. Which ones are effective? What principles of 'integration' ought we to apply? Nobody knows. What is needed then is a conceptual untangling rather than more attempts to 'improve' bureaucratic structures and the minutiae of course contents. Specifically, we point to the need to (i) re-think TE *credentials* and their purposes, particularly the exclusion of practising teachers from them; (ii) re-place the assumed priority of 'practicality' and survival in the pre-service stage with more holistic and enduring principles about educational institutions so that TE is principle rather than folk-lore driven; and (iii) develop flexible programs of teacher release in which teachers can refresh both their knowledge and skills base and their understandings of the contexts of Education as a social institution.

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3.2.4.

# ACCOMMODATING AND TRANSLATING MULTIPLE EXPECTATIONS OF NEW ZEALAND SOCIETY AT THE PRE-SERVICE LEVEL.

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The essential framework of the New Zealand educational system, and of the Australian system, for that matter, is derivative, not indigenous. It is derived essentially from the British/Scottish models, and although there have been substantial modifications and innovations to reflect better indigenous needs, its goals, its structures, and the values it perpetuates reflect overwhelmingly the Western European tradition.

New Zealand's indigenous people, on the other hand, are Maori and are the main minority group. They share with New Zealanders of European descent (Pakeha) the same basic aspiration for a successful schooling of their children. They have, however, significantly different views about the appropriateness of competition as the motivating force to achieve individual excellence, and about a values system which places great store on the development of individual excellence.

Not surprisingly, the potential for serious conflict inherent in this situation is the biggest single challenge facing the New Zealand education system. The Maori have good reason to feel dissatisfied. After some 150 years of experience of the Pakeha education system they find today that their young people are disproportionately represented in statistics relative to unemployment, imprisonment, low socio-economic status and educational underachievement. While few apportion all the blame for this to the education system, an increasing number of Maori are advocating the development of a separate system for their young people; a system which acknowledges their specific ethnic needs and which respects Maori values.

For many years Pakeha leaders from all sections of the New Zealand educational community have been aware of these difficulties and committed to addressing them, but without measurable success. These issues are enormously complex and neither Maori nor Pakeha seriously believes there is one simply recipe for success. But, in recent years, there has been a major shift in addressing the issue; a shift based on the realisation that the people best placed to address Maori issues are themselves Maori; that the initiatives most likely to succeed are Maori initiatives. In short, the realisation that Pakeha paternalism, or any other brand of paternalism for that matter, is not only culturally inappropriate; it does not work!

In recent years, there have been some exciting Maori initiatives in the New Zealand education scene. The development of Te Kohanga Reo (Maori language nests) has won widespread support from the Maori people. The number of these centres has grown from five to five hundred in the space of six years. The principal objective of the scheme, simple stated, is to enhance young Maori's self-esteem, and their level of achievement which will inevitably follow, by giving them the confidence which inevitably flows from one's having confidence in the use of one's first language. In the eyes of the Maori the scheme is stunningly successful.

This brief paper, however, focuses on two other initiatives; both Maori in origin, each providing a set of procedures based on Maori values to effect an important piece of education decision-making where these procedures were once exclusively Pakeha.

The first of these initiatives, Te Atakura (New Dawning), provides a set of procedures for making decisions on eligibility for entry to secondary teacher training for those students interested in teaching Maori subsequently. The second, Kiarahi Reo (language assistants), provides a set of procedures for the selection of applicants for positions to assist teachers with Maori language. The unique feature of both is the way Maori protocol has supplanted traditional Western procedures to give administrative effect to achieve the required outcomes.

Te Atakura, then, addresses the thorny issue of teacher selection in a uniquely Maori way. Maori young people have traditionally fared badly in the teacher selection process, principally because of the difficulty they had in meeting the traditional criteria; specifically a successful record at secondary school. In this instance the prime requirement of the prospective trainee is a thorough knowledge of the Maori language and culture. Who better to decide on whether the new entrant is suitable in this respect than his or her own people. Accordingly a candidate is attested by a local tribal committee who, in turn, recommends to the department the issuing of an attestation certificate. The certificate, in effect, is a qualification for entry to teacher training, having the same status as a university degree or equivalent qualification. Attested candidates then take part in the normal teacher training selection procedures. The selection committee, however, unlike the usual local committee, is a national body well represented from the Maori community.

The central feature of the Kiarahi Reo (language assistants) scheme is the procedure used to recommend them for appointment. These positions, once filled by following traditional Pakeha procedures are now filled in the Maori way. The selection procedures take place on a local Marae, and are conducted throughout in the Maori language. The principal of the local school advises the local Maori people on the nature of the job, and the local people speak to and hear from all applicants in the marae setting. In a way most suited to them, sometimes by devolving responsibility to a committee, sometimes arising from a discussion involving all the people, they decide on a preferred applicant and recommend in order to the local education board (employing authority). Once the education board has agreed to the recommendation the local people formally present the successful applicant to the school, observing full Maori protocol.

Both these Maori initiatives are highly successful. They have the confidence of the Maori people who take their responsibilities very seriously indeed. Because the Te Atakura trainee and the Kiarahi Reo appointee carry the Mana (prestige) of their local people a bad decision takes away these people's own Mana. And that is something very serious to all Maori people.

In essence, therefore, this relatively recent experience confirms the view that, when uniquely Maori issues are to be addressed within the New Zealand education system, the most appropriate people to address them are the Maori people themselves. And there is no reason to believe that the success of this model is limited to the New Zealand scene.

3.3.1

# SETTING THE AGENDA FOR RESEARCH AND DEVELOPMENT: FINDINGS FROM TWO NATIONAL STUDIES OF PRESERVICE TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMS IN THE U.S.

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The general aim of this paper is to concentrate on the study of the teaching profession toward the explication of research questions which guide the generation of knowledge about teacher education. To date references to the knowledge base of teacher education relates primarily to knowledge about teaching, which can inform the process of preparing teachers but does not contribute to knowledge about the professional development of teachers. These knowledge base references are drawn from studies of classroom language, teacher planning and decision making, effective schools research and research on various content areas.

What then constitutes the knowledge base in teacher education? In short, we are concerned with what teachers engage in during their preparation rather than what teachers do in teaching. According to Turner (1975), research on teacher education can be viewed in terms of a sequence of events in professional life. Koehler (1984) observes that "a review of teacher education research typically begins with a lament concerning quantity and/or quality of studies of preservice teacher education." According to her review of 220 studies on preservice teacher education, "there are lots of studies, but they don't add up to anything; they are piecemeal and particularistic." In summary, the teacher education community appears to be in agreement on the state of teacher education research; efforts have been unsystematic, idiographic, and trivial.

As a consequence, a number of significant studies of teacher education are now underway in the United States which will document the nature of the preservice endeavor generally, and in some instances take an indepth look at the degree to which programs of teacher education exist and the distinctive nature of these programs. Two such efforts provide the focus of this paper: The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE) project called, "Research About Teacher Education", which includes the results of data collected from member institutions over the past three years; and, documentation from six indepth observational case studies of preservice elementary education programs sponsored by the North Central Regional Educational Laboratory (NCREL).

The research and Information Task Force of AACTE, now called the RATE project, was established in 1985. A primary goal of the Task Force has been to design means to gather accurate and reliable information about teacher education. Thus, the Task Force has committed itself to gather information about the substance of our programs, the perceptions of our professors and our students, and to initiate the development of a national data set that will support efforts to improve our programs. A brief overview of the design to establish this national data set is provided here. First, we should underscore the developmental nature of our work. Because this particular project was replaced the AACTE annual survey, it is a dynamic, ongoing process. During the first year a primary focus was on content and instruction in methods courses. The second year called for fine-grained descriptions and analyses of foundations curricula, and the third year focused on secondary methods and the development of core or generic teaching methodologies and laboratory and clinical activities. Broader programmatic concerns such as the conceptualization of teaching that drives a program, integration with the arts and sciences, articulation across courses in the professional sequence and forms of extended programs and induction schemes have also been investigated.

Over time, then, the intent is to contribute to both a more accurate and explicit portrayal of key elements of teacher preparation programs and eventually a fuller understanding of the programs themselves and conditions surrounding them. The strategy of contributing to a fuller picture over time is consistent with the data that can reasonably be accessed at any one time with a survey approach.

Each year a stratified random sampling of AACTE institutions was used to select 90 institutions for the study. Strata representing three different types of degree-granting institutions were identified: bachelors, masters, and doctoral. Eighty-four percent of the sample returned the requested data during the first year, an extraordinarily high return rate. The instruments used to collect the data underwent three iterations in their development, including the benefit of a review by a panel of teacher education and methodological experts. The instruments were also field-tested by institutional representatives from each of the three strata. Another aspect of the process that greatly increased the quality of information obtained was the training of representatives at each institution to use common procedures and definitions. This training was reinforced during the study by regular telephone contact with the research staff at AACTE. The training alone distinguishes this study from the scores of surveys that are regularly distributed in the profession.

What about the study itself? Many of its findings simply confirmed beliefs and impressions already held. For example, the study found that:

-- Elementary education students take almost twice as many hours in professional education as secondary education students.
-- University supervisors have little on site contact with student teachers (less than 2 percent of the time involved in student teaching).
-- Only 7 percent of the secondary education faculty have had no experience in schools.
-- Eighty-nine percent of the students are white, and three-quarters are female.
-- The most frequently cited reason for becoming a teacher was to help children grow and learn (cited by 90 percent of the teacher education students).

On the other hand, some of the findings were more provocative.

-- More than 95 percent of the education units provide for supervision of student teaching by tenure-track faculty, and these faculty members supervise about 75 percent of the student teachers.

- Both students and faculty view secondary education methods courses to be as "rigorous" or "more rigorous" than comparable courses in English and history, but less rigorous than science and math courses.
- Males represent four-fifths of the professors, two-thirds of the associate professors, and less than half of the assistant professors. As male professors retire (average age is 53 years) and females are promoted, the professoriate will become increasingly female.
- Education students have nearly a 3.0 grade point average in their general liberal arts courses that are prerequisite to entry into teacher education programs.
- More students in secondary education programs are enrolled in mathematics (26 percent) than any other subject.

A few of the findings are alarming. For instance, that teacher education students show little interest in teaching handicapped children, low income children, and children of low ability does not augur well for children at risk. Only 29 percent of the secondary students believed they were "prepared" to teach with computers. The significance of the project, however, is not so much with the individual findings contained in the report. Its real significance lies in the level of confidence we can have in the accuracy of these data, and in our ability to monitor changes in teacher education programs over time, thereby increasing our capacity for longitudinal research.

The quantitative data resulting from the AACTE studies are buttressed as well by qualitative studies directed toward data gaps which cannot be adequately addressed through survey research. Little exists in the way of comprehensive descriptions of programs of teacher preparation beyond the impersonal, prescribed documentaries gaining dusts on the shelves of regulatory and accrediting agencies. While there are also relatively brief narratives published in education journals, more exhaustive accounts incorporating the multiple perspectives of faculty, students, administrators and those in schools who work with these programs cannot be found. As a result, NCREL has sponsored a project which addresses this void and provides indepth, personal accounts of initial teacher preparation as conducted in six different institutions of higher education ranging from a small liberal arts institution to major research-oriented universities.

To foster a thorough examination of practices in the six institutions studied, data collection was organized around the following objectives:

1. To provide a descriptive portrayal of the nature and quality of professional educational curricula;
2. To provide a clearer picture of the instructional or pedagogical practices which are modeled for prospective teachers in various aspects of their professional preparation.
3. To provide a clearer picture of the scope, nature and quality of the opportunities which prospective teachers have for learning how to teach; and
4. To provide a clearer picture than has already been provided of the extent to which programs of teacher preparations exist.

The institutions which were selected for study on-site represent three types of institutions preparing teachers including 1) schools and colleges of education in major universities with a knowledge production mission, 2) state universities where teaching is emphasized over research and 3) smaller institution(s) with a liberal arts orientation. A multi-dimensional selection procedure was developed to identify these elementary teacher preparation programs including a review of teacher education programs that had received awards for exemplary practice; those programs which were described in the literature as exemplary in some manner and those which were nominated by respected teacher educators and other knowledgeable educators.

The rationale for this project and the objectives which define the dimensions of this study were based on the premise that better understanding about teacher education requires both quantitative and qualitative methods of inquiry. We employed a process of qualitative inquiry referred to as the observational case study approach. As such our attention was to generate rich descriptions of the "lived experience of teacher education" through intensive site visitations. Such portrayals required inquiry into not only the faculty and students who participated in the selected programs, but also teachers and other school personnel who support these programs through providing a context for field experiences.

Across the institutions studied we were able to derive a set of conditions, policies and characteristics as follows:

1. positive attributes common to all institutions studied;
2. areas of concern common to all institutions studied;
3. distinctive features of institutions studied; and
4. attributes of programs.

We conclude this paper with discussion of those conditions, characteristics, and practices across the six sites which appear to contribute in a cumulative and coherent programmatic sense to the education of beginning teachers. Attempts to synthesize research studies of effective schools have identified organizational, structural, and climate variables as distinguishing more effective from less effective schools. To some extent we were able to identify similar attributes of teacher education programs. Understandably these were manifested to various degrees across the programs we observed.

Our purpose, in summary then, is to describe characteristics which appear to contribute to coherent programs of teacher preparation drawing upon practices and policies endorsed by faculty and students across these institutions. Thus, we have identified fourteen factors we suggest be considered in designing programs of teacher preparation and which should serve as foci for further research at the very least, including: a clear conception of schooling/teaching; high expectations for teacher education students, the delineation of program themes in which key concepts are tied together throughout courses and experiences; statements of clear objectives; a respect for content as well as experience in learning how to teach; the designation of student cohort groups and a sense of shared ordeal; indications of program distinctiveness; interdisciplinary and highly articulated programs; curricula which possess adequate life space; adequate materials and resources; programs with research and development linkages; and curricula which are sustained through systematic program evaluation designs.

# 3.3.2 FACTORS THAT APPEAR TO INHIBIT AND PROMOTE MAJOR REDESIGN OF TEACHER PREPARATION PROGRAMS AT RESEARCH UNIVERSITIES IN THE UNITED STATES

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## INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

Over the past five years in the United States there has been a new, intensive wave of criticism directed at the quality of the schools. Within the social, political, and economic framework of feeling that the nation was losing its competitive edge with other industrial nations, were general concerns about lowered measured average achievement of students, poor comparisons of U. S. student achievement with students in other industrial nations, previous declines in S.A.T. scores, and school curricula that, using the words of the Commission on Excellence report, allegedly had "...become homogenized, diluted, and diffused without central purpose."

The initial response to such concerns and the so-called "first wave" of reports was the appointment of over 250 state commissions and committees to improve the schools which resulted in increased state regulations/requirements and the establishment of manadatory testing programs for both students and prospective teachers (sometimes inservice teachers as well). Virtually all of the states increased the number of academic courses required for a high school diploma and almost all of the states also established obligatory testing programs for all students, sometimes tied to school graduation, grade promotion, or required remedial instruction. Almost all of the states also established examinations as prerequisite to initial teacher certification. This was all part of the effort to demonstrate deliberate and quick corrective action as well as greater public accountability for improvement of the schools.

A more recent "second wave" of reports goes beyond merely increasing academic requirements in the schools or mandating testing programs. This second wave involves recommendations that are aimed at the substantive transformation of our schools, their curricula, and the quality of instruction in the schools, along with concomitant transformation of the preparation, licensure, and status of teaching as a profession. The issues of the second wave have shifted to how we can recruit better qualified people into teacher preparation programs, how we can prepare them better in such programs, how we can assess the quality of their academic and professional knowledge not simply as a prerequisite to licensure but also for advanced certification, and how such teachers can become agents for change.

Among the second wave of reports and recommendations certainly have been those of the Holmes Group and the Carnegie Task Force on Teaching as a Profession. There appear to be three goals behind these reports: (1) To overhaul (rather than simply improve) present curricula for preparing teachers in the United States; (2) To convert teaching from an occupation to a bonafide profession; and (3) To have such teacher professionals serve as the central players responsible for the transformation of the schools and their curricula.

## TWO KEY QUESTIONS

With such developments as background, the author visited six prominent research universities during the fall semester of academic year 1987-1988 to examine their efforts to restructure their teacher education programs including general education and academic specialization as well as professional education. The focus of this paper is to address two questions that were central to the study and institutional visits:

(1) What principal problems, concerns, reasons or obstacles were most frequently identified during the institutional visits as inhibiting factors to major changes in their teacher education programs?

(2) What general conditions appeared to be essential at those institutions that brought about major changes in teacher preparation programs?

The six institutions visited were the Universities of Florida, Illinois, Kansas, Minnesota, Virginia, and Wisconsin. Students, faculty, and key administrators from both colleges of education and liberal arts were interviewed along with the university provosts.

Efforts at the Universities of Illinois, Wisconsin, and Minnesota are still in planning stages with Minnesota having a jump with such plans. All three institutions, however, appear to be moving toward dramatic changes in the curricular design for preparing teachers in the form of integrated undergraduate/post-baccalaureate programs. At the University of Minnesota, two such programs are being "piloted" this academic year with fourteen additional programs scheduled for implementation from now through academic year 1990-91.

The University of Kansas instituted an integrated, five-year teacher preparation program in academic year 1981-82. The total program involved expanded general education requirements for prospective teachers (at least 60 semester hours), required academic majors and/or minors for all teacher candidates, and completely revamped professional education studies including early clinical activities and two intensive student teaching experiences. Careful initial undergraduate admission to the program is followed by required fifth-year admission to the University's Graduate School. Students completing the program earn a bachelor's degree and up to 15 semester hours of graduate credit toward a master's degree.

The Universities of Virginia and Florida, in contrast, have redesigned their five-year teacher preparation curricula as combined baccalaureate/master's degree programs. Students completing their programs also have expanded requirements in general education, academic specialization, and professional studies but such work culminates in the awarding of a master's degree to successful candidates. The professional studies (education) component in the programs at the Universities of Kansas, Virginia, and Florida all reflect tougher admission standards and a strong research base in effective schooling and pedagogy along with increased clinical experiences for the teacher candidates.

## INHIBITING FACTORS-CONCERNS

The principal problems, concerns, or reasons given for inhibiting change at all six institutions were:

1. A prevailing education faculty attitude suggesting that present teacher-preparation programs appear to work satisfactorily and have reflected periodic improvement so why change them.

2. Teacher education was not considered a priority within large research-oriented universities nor within their schools of education which generate their national visibility through graduate programs and research.

3. Extended degree programs would be too costly to the university and to potential students to be practical.

4. Extended degree programs would discourage attracting minority students because of increased costs and other factors.

5. Potential students would go to other institutions with four-year programs resulting in enrollment reductions and corresponding resource reductions experienced by schools with extended degree programs.

6. Many school districts would not be willing to pay higher salaries to beginning teachers who graduate from extended degree programs.

7. The reward system in research universities does not reinforce faculty involvement in teacher preparation programs or development projects which are time-consuming and lack prestige.

8. It was felt next to impossible to negotiate the political and substantive changes in general education or academic specialization components of teacher education programs which reside outside of professional schools of education.

9. Education and liberal arts professors are preoccupied with protecting their autonomy which often is identified with their respective fields of specialization; whereas teacher preparation program developments cut across departmental and collegiate lines threatening such autonomy.

10. The knowledge or research base in education/pedagogy was considered insufficiently mature and substantive to warrant moving into extended degree programs with required professional graduate level study for teacher candidates.

## CONDITIONS PROMOTING MAJOR CHANGES

There appeared to be some general conditions essential to bringing about the dramatic and at times painful curricular changes at the three universities which made extended degree programs operational:

1. Some perceived external pressure served as a catalyst for the changes--from a governing board, a state education department, or national movement, for example.

2. Central administration was strongly supportive of and influential in promoting the changes.

3. There was at least a core of education professors as well as some liberal arts faculty supportive of major redesign efforts rather than simply cosmetic or image changes.

4. The education dean was willing to make such efforts a central priority of the college and push for their implementation.

5. Additional resources were ultimately necessary to assure success of the venture.

# 3.3.4 "Reform of General Education and the Preparation of Teachers in American Research Universities"*

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At present, the great majority of American research universities are reviewing and revising the general or liberal education component of their undergraduate curricula. This writer has been involved in this movement for the past two years at Ohio State University, chairing the University "Special Committee for the Review of Undergraduate Curriculum. Comparable committees have been established at most other comprehensive research universities. This reform movement clearly impacts on program development and research in the field of teacher education. In this paper an attempt will be made to describe briefly the context and problems which seem to call for reform and to show why a revitalized program of general education should be of central concern in the conceptualization and development of programs of teacher education.

In 1962, Burton Clark concluded his *Educating the Expert Society* with a section he entitled "Technical Barbarism". Clark said: What are the social and educational conditions for preparing education experts? To train men technically, we now know, is relatively simple. The difficulty lies in finding the inclination. the time, and the ways to continue the technical training, simultaneously or in sequence, with an education in the basic sciences, the humanities, and the social sciences. The basic trends of a technological society move the perspectives of the technical man toward the center of educational affairs, while edging the style and the knowledge of the non-technical generalist toward the periphery. As the society veers toward expertise, the cultural strains highlighted by the old distinctions between the cultivated man and the expert, the pure and the applied, are made severe. The efforts to bring liberal education to the expert constitute a social response to the strain, an attempt to avoid a barbarism of men acute in technical judgment but myopic in social affairs, politics, and cultural understanding.

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*This paper is a revision and condensation of a major symposium paper delivered at the 1988 annual meeting of the American Association of Colleges of Teacher Education, New Orleans, La. Interrelated trends or forces on our campuses which have helped the gap to grow. These three trends are (1) increasing academic specialization, (2) a growing public and student interest in vocationally oriented curricula and programs, and (3) an increased emphasis on the view that students ought be seen as consumers and universities as institutions which should respond to consumer wants and demands. Each of these will be discussed briefly.

The future of the expert society challenges education to close a gap that in the natural course of affairs will ever widen."[1]

There are many today who think that in our major research *universities the gap has widened. There are at least three.*

*Specialization*--most faculty members in the modern American university are lhighly trained academic specialists. This specialization, crucial to first-rate programs of research and graduate study, may reduce faculty members' interest in contributing to the general education of undergraduate students. It may, as well, lead to a curriculum which ostensibly contributes to general education but is in fact designed for the primary purpose of preparing students for advanced study in a specialized discipline. Surely faculty members at our universities have the *potential* to offer first-rate general education, but we need to reject the careless assumption that holding a Ph.D. and a faculty appointment is *ipso facto* demonstration of a person's readiness to offer a good general education course. The faculty member needs to pay attention to questions such as (1) how the particular discipline might best be taught to those who will not be specialists in the field and (2) how the discipline fits with and relates to other disciplines in contributing to the general education of the non-specialist. It is likely that in most of our universities such an expanded role for faculty members will require greatly expanded opportunities for faculty development and a modification of the reward system.

*Vocationalism*--During the past two decades, critics of American higher education have decried what they take to be an over-emphasis on professional and vocational preparation during the undergraduate years. It is true that growing numbers of students have as their primary interest those programs which provide entry qualifications for preferred occupations. It is also true that universities have responded to this interest by encouraging the growth of curricula which provide career entry-level skills. With no intent to denigrate the importance of well-designed and effective professional curricula, we do need to recognize that a too-narrow professional preparation is not an uncommon result. A too-narrow preparation, it could be argues, not only encourages what Clark called "technical barbarism," but also fails to be in the professional interest of those trained due to rapidly changing demands in the professional role.

*Student as consumer*--It is common to hear students referred to as the consumers of higher education, likened to shoppers in the marketplace, with the market being the curricula of our universities like many metaphors, this one does call our attention to some appropriate considerations. Sometimes, however, metaphors mislead, and the consumer metaphor does present a danger when the general education of students is suggested as something to be determined by student shoppers. Some "distribution systems" of general education appear to treat the curriculum as if it were a supermarket. Courses are items on the shelves, and student consumers pick and choose those that fit their tastes and wants. The total bag of courses, it is hoped or assumed, will somehow constitute an appropriately balanced and coherent general education. It could be argued that such an approach comes close to an abrogation of our responsibility. Although it rings of paternalism, there is a growing conviction among university faculties that we should, on each campus, collectively recommend in rather specific terms what we regard as crucial in general education. This conviction appears to be demonstrated in a number of national reports which have been published in recent years.

National Reports--There have been a number of national reports during the past five years which have emphasized the need to reform and revitalize undergraduate general education. Reports which have received wide attention include the National Institute of Education Report,[3] the NEH report "To Reclaim a Legacy",[4] the AAC report "Integrity in the College Curriculum"[5], The National Commission on the Role and Future of State Colleges and Universities[6], and the Carnegie Foundation's College: The Undergraduate Experience.[7] Although there are differences between and among the reports, they share the conviction that the general education component of the undergraduate experience has become incoherent and ineffective. The reports recognize that each college and university needs to design a general education program that takes into account its particular context and problems. At the same time, the goals of general education are properly similar in the several reports.

But what does any of this have to do with the education of teachers? One might respond simply by saying that general undergraduate education should be just that, and it applies to teachers-in-training because it applies to all undergraduate students. But there may be even stronger justification for a renewed emphasis on the general education of teachers. Space here does not permit the development of the argument, but we find the following in Tomorrow's Teachers: A Report of the Holmes Group:

> The specific criticisms in the national reports about higher education tend to confirm the Holmes Group's analysis of the weaknesses in the undergraduate programs at their own institutions: A lack of curricular coherence and an avoidance of a care of enduring and fundamental ideas of the sort that the National Endowment for the Humanities cites in To Reclaim a Legacy. Yet the mastery of such a case if perhaps more important for teachers, especially elementary school teachers, than for any other professional group. All professionals use knowledge in their work, but teaching--insofar as it is not simply career counseling and social work--is actually about knowledge.
>
> The reform of undergraduate education toward greater coherence and dedication to the historic tenets of liberal education is thus essential to improving teacher education. Teachers must lead a life of the mind. They must be reflective and thoughtful: persons who seek to understand so they may clarify for others, persons who can go to the heart of the matter."[8]

Although there are parts of Tomorrow's Teachers with which this writer disagrees, the above quotation seems both correct and of great importance. This paper began with Burton Clarks' description of the problem of "technical barbarism". Indeed if technical barbarism is a problem in higher education in general, surely the solution to that problem requires that special care be taken in the education of teachers. In too many discussions about reforming teacher education, too little attention is paid to the need for general education--discussions tend to focus on the professional aspects and on students' preparation in particular subject matter fields. Certainly professional knowledge skill, and mastery of the subject matter to be taught, are central components of teacher competence. We need to remember, however, that in listing the parts as components or elements of teacher competence, we are dealing more with a decision than a description. That is, what we include and exclude depends upon a decision about what sort of teachers we want. And if we want teachers who, in addition to being professionally skilled and well-prepared in subject matter, are also models of generally or liberally educated persons, then this should be included in our definitional ideal and should be a central concern as we work to revise and reform teacher education.

## NOTES

1. Burton Clark, Educating the Expert Society (San Francisco: Chandler Publishing Company, 1962 pp. 290-291.

2. Gerald M. Reagan, "The Education Professoriate: The Concept, Some Problems, Some Proposals" in Ayers Bagley (Ed.) The Professor of Education: An Assessment of Conditions. (Minneapolis: Society of Professors of Education, 1975) pp. 29-52. See also Gerald M. Reagan (Chair), "Interim Report of the Special Committee for Undergraduate Curriculum Review" in On Campus, February 12, 1987. (Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University).

3. National Institute of Education Report, Washington, D.C.

4. National Endowment for the Humanities, "To Reclaim a Legacy" Washington, D.C.

5. Association of American Colleges, Integrity in the College Curriculum. Washington, D.C., 1985.

6. Report of the National Commission on the Role and Future of State Colleges and Universities.

7. Ernest L. Boyer, College: The Undergraduate Experience in America. The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching. (New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, 1987).

8. Tomorrow's Teachers: A Report of the Holmes Group. (East Lansing, Michigan: The Holmes Group, Inc., 1986) p.47.

4.1.1 **Tian Jiasheng, Professor, President,**
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## The Present situation and the Future of In-service Teachers' Training in China

In China today, most people recognize that the education is a sacred profession, and it is regarded as the future cause. The newly cultivated would decide the social outlook of China in 21st century. The government attaches great importance to education, and the teachers are now greatly esteemed. Over the last ten years, our normal education has made considerable progress and shows its bright prospect. Here, I would like to offer a brief account of in-service teachers' professional training in China to all participants.

### (1) History Review

As it is known to all that China has a long period of feudal society. Its government sticked to old ways and the economy was in slowmoving as well. Education was thus kept in a backward state. We have the splendid ancient civilization, and the great educationist, Confucius was a pioneer in this regard. But, owing to the long delay to develop the productive forces this backward situation could no be changed. In 1949, after the liberation, the founding of the people's Republic of China was a milestone in the education history, brought about a new stage to Chinese education, and laid a solid foundation for the future education. The normal education including the teachers' training was flourishing. But in the 1960's, as the economy and education were advancing by leaps and bounds in the developed countries, the "Cultural Revolution" occurred in China, causing unprecedented disaster to our educational work. Until 1976, the "Cultural Revolution" came to the end. China has determined again, to set her education especially the normal education on the right course. Since then, the new developing period the normal education has finally come.

On reviewing this history, we want to let every participant know the development of Chinese education. One of our premiers said in 1985: "In past, we did not pay much attention to the education, especially the normal education. It was unwise. It's late for us to realize it. This problem had existed for a long time at least 20 years. If we had understood this earlier, if the central and local departments had taken care of the educational work and put it into the strategic situation, and made up our mind to solve it, then, China would have been quite different from the present situation today." These bitter lessons have taught us to realize the importance, necessity, and urgency of developing the education, especially the normal education.

### (2) Golden age of teacher training

The normal education in China, has divided into two kinds: One is the preliminary teacher's training, and the another is the in-service teachers' training normal educational. Now China has formed her teachers' training. According to the statistics, China has now 72 normal universities for preliminary teachers' training, 185 normal colleges for professional training, 982 secondary normal schools, 59 normal schools for preschool education, 262 pedagogical institutes for in-service teachers' training, 2072 schools for teacher's advanced training. In 1987, the enrollment of the institutes' trainees was 260 thousand in total; The enrolling capacity was 80 thousand per year; The trainees in teacher's training schools was 770 thousand, and the enrolling capacity was 250 thousand per year. The students of non-normal higher institutes was 10 thousand; The enrolling capacity was 45 thousand per year. These universities, colleges and schools of different levels as well as T V universities have composed a nationwide network of normal education, supplying more and more qualified teachers for the development of basic education. As the president of Shaanxi Pedagogical Institute, I would like to tell you something about my institute. Our institute is the major training base of the middle school teachers for improving and renewing their educational theory, knowledge and teaching capacity to satisfy the future social and teaching needs. It adopts the multi-levels, multi-norms and multi-forms, and welcomed by social aspects. The 262 pedagogical institutes in our country are entrusted 60% of the tasks of in-service teachers' training. Now, take our institute as the example. In 1987, Shaanxi province has trained 3,143 in-service teachers in total, among them 2,450 were trained by our institutes, making up 77.9% of the total number. The pedagogical institutes of all provinces gradually becoming the service centre for teachers' instruction, scientific research, consultation, and library reference materials and audio-visual education programme.

The Chinese Government has created more favourable social surroundings than any period in the past for teachers training.

1. Investment increased:

   During "the seventh five-year plan" period, there will be 13 billion yuan as grant-in-aid for normal education and teachers training. The part of increased expenses of the central and local education will be given priority to the development of normal education and training of teachers. Moreover, the World Bank has granted interest-free loans of 5.5 billion U.S. dollars, most of which will be used on carrying our normal education and teacher training throughout the country. Besides, the World Bank Fund for child had given their support to improve our education. Also, the overseas Chinese concerning about our country's education, have contributed for developing our education.

2. Expending the proportion of the enrollment for normal colleges and universities:

   In recent years, the number of enrolled students of the normal colleges and universities is 1/3 of the total. And the students of normal universities are totally 1/4 of all colleges and universities students.

3. To set up "Chinese Teacher's Day", raise their social position, really do something for them, increasing their income particularly for those who undertake primary school, middle school and preschool education so as to improve their living standard. Since October, 1987, the primary and middle school teachers' salaries have increased 10 percent.

4. The Government has established the fund for awarding the model teachers. At present there are over 26 million donations used for awarding them.

In order to improve their teaching standards, teachers on the level of primary and middle schools are working hard to be appointed to a position. This is a new system in China now. In May, 1986, the Central leading group of reforming academic titles transmitted the document of the National Education Committee's "On the Appointment of Position to the Teachers of primary and middle Schools". This regulation has been tried out all over the country, to make sure that a teacher should not be only checked politically and morally, but also professionally in the basic knowledge of science and culture. Only by this, one can be qualified to be a teacher. It is estimated that this task will be completed in two or three years. It is the principal measure of the teachers' contingent construction on the level of primary and middle schools. It has encouraged the teachers' enthusiasm for study and helps to improve their instructive capacity and quality.

In October, 1986, the National Education Committee promulgated the following measures, and put into practice of the qualification system for the primary and middle school teachers. According to the requirement of the regulations, primary and middle schools teachers who do not have qualified record of formal schooling, if he has taught for one year, could ask to participate the teaching methodology examination; If he has taught for two years, he could ask to take another qualified examination of cultural specialities. From then on, only those who get the record of formal schooling and corresponding diplomas, could be teachers. The implementing of this system is according to the practical conditions of china, in order to improve them to satisfy the needs of teaching work. All educational institutions teachers' training should teachers qualified for primary and middle schools.

Nowdays the Chinese teacher's training is developing in a lively way. The initiative of the broad educational workers for achievement were brought into play. It is true that chinese normal education now, is in her golden age. However, being a developing country, China's economy remains to be developed in high speed. A certain amount of people don't have the good habit to respect the educational workers. The investigation shows that the potential problems of some primary and middle school teachers trying to change their jobs, now still exist. Normal education has not progressed to the extent as the speedy developing society demands. At present, there are some teachers in primary and middle schools whose educational level cannot meet the requirements of the state. Every effort must be made to overcome all these difficulties. Although there are many problems in our work, still the normal education has made tremendous progress.

Today is the spring of China's normal education, especially in-service teachers' training. We are striving to carry it forward.

## (3) Promise of the Future

What will be a teacher like in the future? The futurist has outlined that, one teacher ought to have wisdom, humanity, artistry, foresight and many other best characteristics. While in China it is imagined like this: At first, we should cultivate so many qualified teachers of primary and middle schools in 15 years or more. Secondly, we should spend more years to provide with a large number of teachers with higher level of education whose ages and specialities are rational. so what we are doing within this century is to pay the debt of the past. Only when the quality is assured would there be good prospects on normal education and teachers' training in the next century.

In days to come, the purpose of teacher training is to develop teachers' intelligence and spiritual civilization, lays stress on their moral character, advocate creative ability and make them adapt themselves to modern life. Teacher is no longer the one who only imparted knowledge as he used to be. Whatelse, the future teachers training will be high administrative levels, mainly researching the educational theory, probing the educational methodology. Meanwhile there should be the corresponding improvement and adjustment on compiling teaching material and curriculum. With the rapid development of science and technology and the coming information age, the idea of receiving education only once will disappear. Whoever should get the continuous education after having worked for a certain period of time, summing up his experience and getting prepared for his work. That will be the model of "training, work, training again" and "work again".

Of course, if we will develop to this step, there would be a long period for China. But, the normal education in future shall be brilliant in our country. It is full of promise.

Before finishing my speech, I would like to mention one thing that the educational reform is going on in China. It's core is that, the education should serve our socialist construction of modernization. And the standard of educational evaluation is to see how many qualified personnel you have cultivated for our socialist construction. This policy should be acted for a long period afterwards, and our teachers' training work at present or in future must follow it.

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## 4.1.2 MODERNIZATIONS IN CHINA AND THE REFORMATION OF TEACHER EDUCATION

### I. A New Conception

The central task for China now is to develop production and to modernize our country. Our goal is to double the total output value by the end of this century and to raise the living standard of the Chinese people to a reasonable level. And by the middle of the next century, the average output value will have reached the intermediate level in the world, the Chinese people will have been leading a fairly well-off life, and the country as a whole will have been modernized in industry, agriculture, science and technology, and national defense. Such a goal cannot be reached if we depend merely on foreign investment and the exploitation of our natural resources. The way out lies in the progress in science and technology. That requires that an enormous number of specialists be trained and the quality of the labourers be improved. Our projects of vital and lasting importance call for good education above everything else. The development of the nation's education must, therefore, be placed in a prominent strategic position, and the exploitation of intelligence should be stressed.

Since the founding of our people's republic, we have made considerable achievements in education, particularly in higher education. Nevertheless, we have neglected the importance of elementary and vocational education. The negligence has now lead to the grave consequence that the educational level and the quality of the labourers are far from desired. This has hindered the development of the productive force. Having pondered at the gains and losses, success and failure, in our educational work in the past 30 years or so, we arrive at this conception: teacher education, particularly advanced teacher education, must serve the development of elementary education. In other words, teacher-training institutions must strive to meet the demand for a large number of qualified school teachers. It has been proved theoretically and practically in the Chinese context that education cannot be truly developed without the improvement of teachers' quality, even if the fund for education is increased. It is much more difficult to improve the quality of teachers than to better the facilities of schools. It is therefore well grounded to take the development of teacher education as the first and foremost task in planning our education. What is gratifying is that this conception is gradually well accepted throughout the country.

China is a large country, which is, on the whole, underdeveloped. And within the country economic development is not even. Coastal areas and some inland regions are comparatively well developed, the educational level there is fairly high. A few schools (for example, the secondary school attached to our university) have set the goal to catch up with the first-rate schools in the world. But most parts of the country, especially remote areas and autonomous regions of minority nationalities, are still rather backward. In these areas the immediate goal for schools is to have teachers, classrooms, desks and chairs. What we mean by improving the quality of every citizen and of labourers is merely to universalize nine-year compulsory education. This is a strategic goal set by our "Law of Compulsory Education".

Yet, the present ranks of our school teachers are not in conformity with the task they are expected to complete. There is a shortage of teachers both in number and in qualifications. Investigations show that 3,900,000 school teachers do not possess the required qualification. The majority of them are not competent enough to be in the teaching position, although a small number of them have persistently engaged themselves in inservice training and thus reached the standard. It is an urgent task for institutions of advanced teacher education to retrain those unqualified school teachers.

From a developmental point of view, a large number of qualified teachers need to be trained. It is estimated that by 1990, 1,000,000 primary school teachers, 750,000 junior high school teachers, and 300,000 senior high school teachers will have been needed in addition to those already in service. The present serious shortage of teachers of foreign languages, music, art, physical education and biology will continue for a fairly long period. Priority should therefore be given to the development of the departments concerned in planning the overall growth of a teacher-training institution.

## II. Reformation of Teacher Education

The development of elementary education, vocational education and adult education in recent years set new demands on teacher education. Only by reforming teacher education can we meet these demands. The reformation of teacher education involves mainly the following.

1. According to the decision by the state government, only those who have the required record of formal schooling or who have passed the qualifying examination can hold a teaching position. This decision will have a significant impact upon the development of teacher education and the rise of teachers' social position. Institutions of advanced teacher education will then have the obligation to retrain many of the teachers already in service. If we try to upgrade the schooling of teachers to the required standard only through sending graduates from teacher-training institutions to schools, it will take as long as 30-40 years. Apparently we need to seek an additional approach. The new approach is to reeducate the in-service teachers. All the teachers who do not have the required formal education are expected to take and complete, within 3 or 4 years, 3-5 courses on subjects relevant to what they are teaching. Nation-wide examinations will be then held, which are called "Qualifying Examinations for School Teachers". The Northeast Normal University, where I am working, has been entrusted by the State Education Commission to take charge of the examinations. Those who fail once and again to pass the examination will no longer be allowed to hold a teaching position.

2. Teacher-training institutions will improve their work in line with their objective. Special attention needs to be paid to developing students' patriotism, their love for the educational cause and their awareness of the role of a teacher as an example for their pupils. Although the government has endeavoured to improve teachers' living conditions and to raise their social position, they are still comparatively less well-off and their work has not received due recognition in society. Teachers in remote areas meet with more difficulties. Seeing this, many young people are not willing to take teaching as their career. Teacher-trainers must therefore strive to educate their students to devote to education and help them develop a lofty goal of life.

In recent years there has been a tendency of neglecting trainees' basic knowledge and skills while emphasizing the enlargement of their range of knowledge. We have realized this and we are now revising the curriculum. We stress the characteristics of teacher-training and aim at the students' good command of basic knowledge and their competence in teaching what they know. We emphasize the role of such courses as psychology, pedagogy of particular subjects and teaching practice in schools. We call on teacher trainers to set good examples for our trainees.

3. In order to solve the problem of shortage of secondary school teachers specializing in the above mentioned subjects, the curriculum of teacher-training institutions must be revised. Faculties that offer courses of study in urgent need should be set up or enlarged and those that train teachers of subjects not required in schools should be cut down. We are preparing a training course where students are required to major in two subjects or specialize in one while working at another as an additional major. The objective of such courses is to train teachers for rural areas. The whole system of teacher education in the chinese context will not be changed within a considerably long period of time. For years to come, primary school teachers will still be trained in normal schools; junior high school teachers will be trained in colleges of education; senior high school teachers will be trained in colleges of advanced education and universities. Starting from 1990, we will set up colleges of education that train primary school teachers, and offer university courses that will prepare junior high school teachers. We will encourage and send some postgraduate students to teach in schools. This year a few postgraduates will hold teaching positions in the primary school attached to the university.

4. The recruiting system and the practice of job assignment in teacher education should be reformed. more students will be recruited from areas that are in urgent need of teachers. Students from these areas will be assigned teaching jobs there after graduation. Special consideration will be given to regions of minority nationalities, so that elementary education there will be pushed forward.

The state government has decided to give preferential treatment to graduates who volunteer to work in remote or border areas. At present graduates are assigned jobs by the state. This institutionalized practice has many defects. It will therefore be changed. Students will be allowed to choose their own occupations; firms, companies and schools will have the opportunities to select employees from among the graduates. That will introduce competition into the education system and will undoubtedly raise the standard of Chinese education.

5. Educational research projects in institutions of advanced teacher education should aim at the resolvement of practical problems and theoretical problems related to the reformation of education. We favour investigations, experiments and observations rather than empty Scholastic discussions. It has been decided recently that all the new teachers in our university work a full year in secondary schools and all the postgraduates in the department of education work half a year in primary or secondary schools, acquainting themselves with practical problems in elementary education.

## III. Serving the Rural and Remote Areas

The overwhelming majority of the Chinese people live in the countryside. To develop education in the rural areas is a "must" for modernizing our country. Remote areas in China are rich in natural resources and hence have a great potentiality in economic development. It is an urgent task to set up various kinds of school there to train personnel required in the exploitation and construction of these areas. Teacher-training institutions should therefore be reoriented to serve the rural and remote areas. Out of that conviction the Northeast Normal University established in 1987 a cooperative relationship with the Changbai area in the northeast. Far from cities this area is backward in economy and education and hence badly in need of aid. The leaders there have a strong determination to develop education and they warmly welcome educators from our university. The university board decided to offer the following services to the area.

1. The university will send graduates to work there who volunteer to dedicate their knowledge and expertise to the development of remote areas. There they will receive liberal benefits and be provided with as good conditions as possible.

2. The university will increase its enrolment in this area. Special consideration will be given to candidates who promise to go back to their hometown after graduation. A small number of candidates who have an excellent school record and the determination to devote to the development of the mountain area will be accepted without taking the entrance examination.

3. the university will run, during vacations, short-term training courses for the secondary school teachers there. Students will be sent there to practise teaching, so that those in-service teachers will have a period of time to concentrate on their retraining.

4. The university will provide guidance for the reformation of education in the area. Some teachers and students of the Department of Education will do investigations and then help the local government to make an overall plan for developing education. The training of specialists of various kinds will thus be reasonably proportioned.

5. The university will cooperate with the local institutions in conducting educational experiments. The experience gained in running our attached kindergarten, primary school and secondary school will be introduced for reference to the schools in that area.

6. The university will provide technological advice for the local government and transfer the possession of technical innovations in exploiting the natural resources of the mountain area.

There are more than 200 teacher-training institutions dispersed in all parts of china. If each of them sets a clear goal to serve the development of economy and education of the locality, the state's general goal of achieving the four modernizations will be reached sooner.

## 4.2.1 Societal and environmental needs that impact on planning and decision making in the pre-service and in-service training of educational personnel. - Progress and Promise of Teacher Education in Malaysia

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Malaysia, a developing country possesses a multi-racial population, where individuals and communities share a wide spectrum of universal values. The divergent societal and environmental needs influenced by social, economic and political considerations coupled with the needs for national development have to be harnessed positively to sustain and strengthen society. These needs are expressed as national needs and are reflected in the Rukunegara, (The National Ideology) which embodies the following:

i) Belief in God;
ii) Loyalty to King and country;
iii) Upholding the Constitution;
iv) Rule of Law;
v) Good Behaviour and Morality.

The Rukunegara reflects the universal values acceptable to all sectors of the multi-racial polity of Malaysia. The aspirations and spirit of the Rukunegara principles are subsequently articulated through various policies and practices including the National Education Policy. The National Education Policy encompasses individual development and societal demands and can be expressed as follows:

i) Education should cater for the optimum development of individual potentialities (physical, intellectual, moral, emotional, socio-cultural and aesthetic development) to ensure a meaningful survival within the framework of societal needs and demands.

ii) Within society, formal education in Malaysia is viewed as an instrument for achieving national unity and providing manpower with appropriate education and training for national development.

iii) Education is also responsible for the preservation, the development and transmission of national culture and heritage.

The Fifth Malaysia Plan spells out the role of the education system as follows:

> "The Education system has been the major vehicle in promoting integration among all Malaysians, irrespective of ethnic, cultural and religious backgrounds. The implementation of Bahasa Malaysia (the national language) as the main medium of instruction, served to strengthen the basis of national unity by promoting effective communication among Malaysians through a common language. Another programme towards enhancing integration was the implementation of a common curriculum for all schools aimed at instilling and inculcating values and norms in line with the Rukunegara, the national ideology. In addition emphasis was given to the study of the historical, economic and social development of Malaysia. The moulding of civic and national consciousness was also emphasised. Co-curricular activities also provided opportunities for school children to interact and work together."
> (Fifth Malaysia Plan 1986 - 1990, p.6)

Teacher education too has been sensitive to these needs and the Ministry has developed teacher education programmes consistent with the aims and objectives of the national education system. Bahasa Malaysia as the medium of instruction was progressively introduced to all teacher training colleges and the entire process was completed by 1970. To accomodate this change, short but intensive Bahasa Malaysia in-service courses were conducted for teacher educators, especially for those whose mother tongue was not the national language. The teacher education curriculum followed by all teacher training colleges is centrally prescribed and is prepared in line with national needs and aspirations. For example, in addition to basic/professional courses and subject specialization programmes which are compulsory, trainees are also required to follow specially designed courses on Islamic Religious Education (for Muslim trainees) and Moral Education which currently caters for non-Muslims only. However, Moral Education becomes a compulsory subject for all trainees beginning July, 1988. Similarly Citizenship Education which is currently being offered would be changed to a new subject called the "History fo the Nation's Development". This subject is aimed at bringing about an awareness and commitment to national policies and practices via a process of historical awakening and consciousness. In addition there are self-enrichment courses which are intended to complement the training programme and to provide a balanced education for students in the colleges.

Hence, it is apparent that all these courses are aimed at inculcating values and norms among trainees in line with the Rukunegara and fostering the spirit of co-existence, co-operation, responsibility and a sense of belonging to the nation. Similarly, co-curricular activities have been made compulsory components of all teacher education programmes and they provide avenues for interaction, understanding, co-operation and the inculcation of civic and national consciousness.

Teacher education also contributes towards the manpower needs of the nation. Accelerated teacher education programmes have been a common feature ever since the country gained independence and this will continue in the near future. During the Fifth Malaysia Plan, the output from teacher training colleges is estimated to be 40,400. This reflects a hundred percent increase over the output achieved during the Fourth Malaysia Plan.

The need to bring about qualitative improvement along with the quantitative expansion has currently led to another effort at revamping the teacher education curriculum. The current emphasis is on the development of the affective domain with the aim of inculcating positive values and attitudes geared towards the needs of the nation. In view of this, an integrated approach to curriculum vis-a-vis the integration of content of various disciplines, methodologies and values is being explored. New methodologies are being planned. There is a shift from didactic methods to experiential and participatory learning. The pursuit of knowledge is being emphasised too. In line with this, reading programmes are being encouraged and have become a criteria for selection as well as for certification. To enable teacher educators to be sensitive to school needs, school based programmes are being formalised. These involve placing teacher educators in schools for a period of time to experience the role of teachers. Schools are also to be adopted by the 28 teacher training colleges throughout the country. In addition to these, a programme to monitor teacher output is also being planned as a means of evaluation and feedback on Teacher Education.

Co-curricular activities are also being revamped with emphasis on elements of administration, skills-training, officiating and coaching being introduced and evaluated.

The need to upgrade and update the academic and professional competencies of teachers will entail an increase in in-service courses. Some courses are already being introduced at the Sultan Idris Institute of Education, the Language Institute, the Specialist Teachers' Training College and other colleges. Some of the courses are: Educational Administration, Professional Leadership, Reading and Writing, Remedial Education, Counselling, Preparation of Teaching Materials and Teacher Dynamics. The last mentioned is to be incorporated in all in-service courses.

Though innovation in teacher education takes time society expects immediate results. This problem is further compounded by a rapidly evolving society. Hence teacher education is always striving to keep pace with the rapid change and demands of societal and environmental needs. The need for greater professionalization of teacher education cannot be ignored by planners and similarly society cannot ignore the importance of providing opportunities for the professional development of the teacher to enable him to cope with the ever expanding role of the teacher.

## 4.2.2 Teacher training in Brazil – historical patterns and political issues

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### 1. The search for a pattern in History

Since the development of schools of interpretation of History in the Spengler style there seems to be a search for patterns for the explanation of educational facts. This affects the preparation of educational personnel. In fact, formal and non-formal preparation of teachers has followed historical patterns in different societies, mainly in developing countries.

In Brazil, one of the fastest and irregularly developing countries in the world, the preparation of teachers has followed definite patterns which can be related to socio-political steps identified as follows:

1.1. nonexistence of teacher training as a political or social concern
1.2. the European model
1.3. World Wars I and II
1.4. education as national identity.

#### 1.1. Nonexistence of teacher training as a political or social concern

In most Spanish and Portuguese colonized countries in the first years, or better saying, decades, there were no educational intentions leading to the preparation of teachers. There were teachers, though, if we consider the educational (conversion or Christianization) action of the Catholic priests towards the natives. But, this was slow and irregular. In Brazil, where the Portuguese arrived in 1500 and took possession of the land for the Crown, the first Jesuit Fathers came in 1549. Even if there were school and teachers, from this time on, the latter were not professionally trained as such.

#### 1.2. The European Model

Teachers were, till the 18th century in Brazil, imported. They came from Europe and were mainly religious. Teaching was not a profession but an activity. Education consisted in copying European patterns. Scions of the rich families of landowners would go to Europe (mainly to the renowed Portuguese universities such as Coimbra) and come back with a degree. This gave them a proper social status and enabled them to manage the family affairs. Some of them became teachers but this was more the exception than the rule. The usual pattern was the "religious" teacher: priests or laymen who had received education in the great Seminaries (besides the Jesuits, Franciscans, Benedictines and Carmelites).

Furthermore, the aim of education was that of perpetuating a social pattern – education for the rich; work for the poor. Liberal arts and some trades such as being a merchant were tolerated and required training but, being a teacher was not a profession so, no preparation was needed.

### 1.3. Wars as factors of social change

World Wars I and II brought some challenges to developing countries. One of the most meaningful was the industrialization affecting the school system and, as a consequence, the preparation of school personnel. Countries like Brazil were not essentially agricultural any more; they had to build and operate factories. The need for technical education and management arose.

Communications with Europe slowed down or stopped while the political and cultural influence of the United States grew. In schools curricula, English took the place of French and Philosophy of Education shifted from German Idealism and French Rationalism to American Pragmatism.

Developed nations represented standards to be met and schools and teaching methods were, literally "transplanted" to Brazil. Those were the "golden years" of the New School, of the translation and popularization of the works of John Dewey and W. H. Kilpatrick. Education was regarded as a tool for economic development and teachers' training was almost a national priority. Slogans like "schools for everybody", "democratization of education", "equality" and "opportunities" were a constant in pedagogical discourse.

Such a state of affairs led to one of the deepest educational reforms in Brazil, in 1961 which in regard to the previous system (rigidly centralized) was indeed an important step to decentralization and democratization.

But, the rythm in which economical and social development unfolded in Brazil was highly irregular and both the school system and teacher training were to reflect this. A new phase in educational politics and policy could be detected.

### 1.4. Education as national identity

Brazil became, more and more, a self-sufficient nation, with a growing industrialized economy. Exportation dealt no longer with raw materials but with manufactured goods and competition in the international market rose to a very high level. Socially and politically this led to a whole new concept of nationality and, obviously, of education. A historical pattern is, once more, to be found in the background of this phenomenon – the search for national identity.

Colonized nations have bursts of nationality. The first always leads to independence. It was so in Brazil when in 1822 the Portuguese Crown prince, who was practically raised in Brazil, revolted against Portugal and proclaimed independence. This gesture was preceded by struggles in different parts of the country which bore witness to a growing national feeling. The second burst of nationality affected education deeply and could be detected in Brazil after World Wars I and II and has already been referred to. The third one came aproximately in 1970 and was an outcome of internal and external factors.

Internally there were the consequences of the military government ruling the country since 1964. Some confrontations between "left" and "right" were definitely outlined in politics and education. The so called "popular" educators such as Paulo Freire (in exile at the time) and some sectors of the Catholic Church stood against the government policy – this was the "left". The "right" was represented by the government itself with some efforts to reduce educational phenomena to their economic dimension with large plans and institutions such as MOBRAL (Movimento Brasileiro de Alfabetização) to fight illiteracy and an expansion of higher education (which led to a deterioration of quality in Brazilian universities). Of course the political undercurrents could be perceived and teacher' training reflected this.[1]

The foreign or external factors which underlined the nationality burst were the reflection of a worldwide political situation – a confrontation and a fight for influence between East and West or in more naive terms communism versus democracy. Of course this is a rather plain framework for complex problems but the consequences for education and teacher training can be stated as follows. On one side there were the defenders of the "short-term" teacher training or the use of lay teachers. After a short time this resulted in a complete failure, since the teacher showed almost the same low level of instruction as the students. Even, high level training of teachers (such as went on in the universities) was viewed as a reflection of an education for an "elite" and non-democratic. This reinforced the search for "national" patterns for education or an authentic Brazilian educational pattern.

Also, the rythm in which social and economic development unfolded itself in Brazil was highly irregular and both, the school system and teacher training were to reflect this. Standards were not to be copied but created out of genuine national needs and aims. As a consequence, there was a refusal of any foreign inspiration and the banishment of "classical" educators. A new pedagogical jargon was developed and national authors were more and more in fashion. Such is the situation in general terms today.

## 2. Conclusion – political issues in teacher training in Brazil

The politics of education in Brazil regarding teacher training assumed since 1980 (almost a decade now) critical aspects. The excess of "national identity" is leading to extremes that take sometimes the features of xenophobia. And, of course, such an attitude, brings an impoverishment to the whole process of education.

Mainly at university level the crisis has become more acute and claims for revision of teacher training are heard. The slogans are "better teachers", "recycling, updating", and so on.[2]

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[1] Teacher training in Brazil was done in two main levels – elementary teachers came from the Normal School, whose level could be compared with the Senior High School in the U.S. Secondary and/or university teachers were prepared in the universities. After 1971 the training of elementary teachers was a branch of the secondary course, among other types of semi-professionalization. This consequently, led to a lowering of the level of elementary teachers.

[2] As an example the Secretary of Education for the city of Rio is developing a recycling program with the collaboration of the School of Education of the Federal University reaching about eight thousand teachers (elementary and junior high school).

*A search for quality is now growing. Higher cultural and technical standards are required for teachers. In-service, recycling and updating programs are encouraged at all levels.*[3] *Even inside the universities the role of the Schools of Education is now an energing one, its importance ranking with the traditional schools (Medicine, Law, Engineering).*

*In Brazil today a midterm projection allows us to affirm that policies for training of educational personnel are changing very rapidly and shall soon follow the patterns of fully developed nations.*

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[3] *The Ministry of Education has supported such programs through CAPES (Coordenadoria de Aperfeiçoamento do Pessoal de Ensino Superior) – Coordination for the Perfectioning of Higher Education Personnel sponsoring formal and non-formal courses, programs or projects.*

# 4.3.1 THE DEMOCRATIZATION OF EDUCATION IN RESPONSE TO SOCIETAL AND ENVIRONMENTAL NEEDS IN EGYPT

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Several serious problems, which faced the Egyptian society at the beginning of this century, created an urgent need for realizing vital goals that are apt to secure stability and the prevalence of prosperity. Most important of these goals were : disseminating education, improving mass education and developing a skilled and an enlightened population in order to establish a modern society.

Education is the right of all Egyptians. All citizens of all ages share the right to benefit from education. This extends to all categories without discrimination concerning religion, sex and social status. Hence, the policy of education in Egypt aims at the democratization of education.

## Problems :

In achieving the above goal, i.e., democratization of education, the country was faced by the following problems :

### I. Population Explosion :

During the first half of the twentieth century, the rate of increase in population was so high that it became an obstacle to any attempt at education reform. Furthermore, this population explosion seemed to hinder any possibility of solving the problems of development in Egypt. Consequently, new societal and environmental needs emerged.

For example, to secure good supplies of food for the growing population, the need for increasing the area of the cultivated land was found, solely, insufficient. The need for rapid development in various fields other than agriculture became urgent. Technological change as well as social change had been realized to be essential to build up a modern and productive society and to maintain the country's security and stability. These new goals charged the educational system with more responsibilities in order to prepare the necessary skilled manpower. Thus, the State was forced to take the effective measures for replanning and putting a new educational policy in response to the emerging societal and environmental needs.

## II. Illiteracy :

High percentage of illiteracy was another serious problem that faced the process of democratization of education at the beginning of this century. Solving this problem necessitated extensive measures to be taken by the government. In addition, immense financial resources should be available to cover the expenses needed for solving this complicated problem.

## III. Low Economic Status :

In rural regions, during the first half of the twentieth century, the farmers could not afford the payments demanded by schools and universities due to their low economic status. Moreover, parents were in utmost need for their children's assistance in farming in order to support their families in earning their living. This untolerable burden, reinforced by the traditional attitude of attachment to their cultivated land, motivated parents to withdraw their children from schools. Consequently, a high percentage of absentees in schools of these regions was reported.

In the meantime, only few universities had been established in large cities. Therefore, the attendance at the university became a serious problem to those students living in rural regions or small cities.

**Strategy :**

Egypt took effective measures to achieve democratization of education. Most important of these measures are the following :

I. The Egyptian constitution states that Free Education is the right of all Egyptians. This applies to all educational stages including higher education.

2. Expansion in building new schools all over the country.

3. Several new universities have been established in small cities as well as in large cities, taking into consideration strategic sites of the country. This careful distribution provides all students with equal opportunities to continue their higher education.

4. The educational system ensures equal admission opportunities for all Egyptian students without discrimination with respect to religion, sex, and social status.

5. Basic education is compulsory for all Egyptian children starting from six years old till fifteen years old. Basic education comprises primary education for six years and preparatory eduction for three years.

6. University Students' Hostels have been established. They provide various facilities to students at very low costs including dormitory, meals, social and medical services. These facilities encouraged parents living in distant areas to motivate their sons and daughters to enroll in the university.

7. The Previous objectives could not have been realized without the preparation of the necessary competent teachers and education personnel. The endless flow of admission to schools and universities has already had its impact on the rate of increase in establishing new faculties of education in various governorates.

8. Achieving competency and the required standard of performance needed for developing a productive society necessitates

continuous training of inservice education personnel. Thus , innovated training programs have been designed and implemented in local education administrations. Furthermore, distance teaching and learning have been utilized for upgrading inservice primary-school teachers.

Achievements:

Substantial progress has been made in meeting the goal of democratization of education. This progress is indicated by the following data which show conspicuous change:

I. Through a period of I8 years from I959/60 to I987/88 the number of pupils has increased from 2,452,377 to 7,750,700 pupils in primary schools, and from 249,I29 to 3,I65,470 pupils in preparatory schools. This makes a total of eleven million pupils approximately in the stage of basic education. That is, the increase is more than eight million pupils including both sexes.

2. The number of primary-school teachers was I35,570 in the year I98I/I982 (private schools are not included). According to a five-year plan, from I982/83 to I986/87, this number increased to I92,5I8 teachers,i.e., an increase of 57 thousand teachers in this limited period.

3. Distance teaching program has proved fruitful for preservice and inservice teachers in distant areas and rural regions, and for upgrading primary-school teachers.

4. Through a period of I8 years from I959/60 to I987/88 the number of universities has increased from four universities in addition to the ancient Islamic"University of Al-Azhar ", to thirteen universities. These universities comprise various departments of the most recent specializations.

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# 5.1 THE USA/CHINA TEACHER EDUCATION CONSORTIUM: ITS ORIGIN AND ITS FUTURE

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In November 1986, the USA/China Teacher Education Consortium was formed with initial membership of 20 American universities, three public school systems, and one Chinese province. By January 1988, the Consortium claimed membership of 30 universities and four Chinese provinces representing a population of almost 100 million. During its first year of operation, the Consortium hosted 11 Chinese educators in the USA and sent 40 American educators to China. The exchange of faculty, students, and educational materials has developed far more rapidly than was expected. The Consortium was organized to meet needs both in China and in the United States.

## Educational Needs in USA and China

### The Need for an International Component in American Teacher Education

National efforts to improve and reform teacher education have made no mention of the international dimension of American teacher education. Little attention has been given to the question of whether teacher educators are responding effectively to the demands of an interdependent world, either in incorporating an international dimension in their own curriculum or in the preparation and continuing education of teachers with a global perspective. Most international experts would agree that neither the teacher nor the institutions that provide teacher training have responded adequately to a world that is shrinking in terms of time and distance while expanding significantly the social, political, economic, and technological relationships necessary in a global society.

International education, as a set of analytical skills to be used by teachers to investigate and understand other cultures and to teach students the concepts of cultural pluralism and ethnic diversity, has not yet become an integral component of American teacher education. The professional repertoire of the American teacher must include a body of knowledge of the issues, problems, and relationships of the modern world if that teacher is to be effective in interpreting critical international events to students.

### Educational Needs in China

Since the founding of the New China in 1949, education has followed a tortuous course in its development. In the early days following the revolution, remarkable achievements were made in education and the rate of illiteracy was significantly reduced. However, the status of education began to be seriously diminished in the late 1960's when certain political events led to the "Cultural Revolution." During this so-called "Cultural Revolution," the need for knowledge was negated and education abolished. As a consequence, the Chinese educational cause was seriously damaged and large numbers of educational workers were bitterly persecuted. The education of a whole generation of young people had been disrupted and the educational gap between China and developed countries, which had been narrowing, widened again.

Following its Third Plenary Session in May 1985, the Eleventh Party Central Committee realigned the guiding principles and issued a series of new policy decisions on education. The result was a series of decisions that will enable education to revive and develop vigorously. The Committee emphatically stated that to bring about fundamental change it would be necessary to start with a systematic reform of the educational structure. They advocated resolute steps to "...streamline administration, devolve power on units to lower levels, ...reform course content and teaching methods...," and "...to usher in a new educational situation in which elementary education will be substantially strengthened, vocational and technical education greatly expanded, colleges and universities will be able to exploit their initiatives to the full..." and "...education at all kinds and at all levels will actively address the multiple needs of economic and social development."

During the past year, China has responded vigorously to what appears to be an "educational revolution." A national compulsory attendance law has been passed requiring nine years of education for all Chinese children. While implementing the nine-year compulsory education system, the Chinese are developing pre-school education and special education for the blind, the deaf, the mute, the handicapped, and retarded children. They are revitalizing higher education and have recognized and formalized the value of teacher education.

China must build a mighty contingent of qualified and dedicated teachers to assure the success of compulsory education. Therefore, they must raise the status and material benefits of teachers. They must train in-service teachers while radically reforming the college and university preparation of pre-service teachers.

In summary, China may well be the premiere world laboratory for those who would study the process of educational change and the resultant impact of that change on economic, social, political, and general cultural conditions.

## The Development of a Consortium

In August 1986, four American educators visited the People's Republic of China at the invitation of educational officials of the Liaoning Province. The Liaoning Province, located in the northeast of China, has a population of 37 million people and is one of the most industrialized provinces in the nation. Shenyang, its capital, has a population of over 5 million. The Province operates 13 colleges that prepare teachers. A major problem of the Province is preparing the school facilities and teachers to cope with the compulsory education law requiring nine years of schooling for all children by 1995.

The primary purpose of the American visiting group was to discuss ways and means of assisting the Province in the improvement of schools and, more specifically, teacher education. The visit culminated with the preparation of a Protocol Agreement (see Appendix A) establishing a consortium that would conduct certain educational activities including:

- The exchange of educational information at all levels of education including early childhood, primary, junior middle school, senior middle school, and college levels
- The exchange of faculty, particularly teacher education faculty, from the Liaoning Province to the United States and from the United States to Liaoning
- The exchange of students who may wish to study in the sister country
- The establishment of sister school relationships between primary, middle schools, and colleges in Liaoning and comparable schools in the United States
- Continuing consultations on the educational problems and needs of our respective countries through correspondence and visitations

The American visiting group found the needs of the Liaoning Province to be so great that no one institution could make the necessary arrangements designated in the Protocol Agreement. The obvious answer was the formation of a consortium of American universities which wished to participate. The visiting group made the decision to invite selected universities with strong teacher education programs to participate. Invitations were extended to state colleges and universities that appeared to have limited resources to fund the massive international programs directed by major research institutions but which, by pooling interests and resources, could make a greater impact on the Province's need than could any single institution. Membership in the consortium was initially limited to 20 institutions, but later revised upward to 30 institutions, primarily regional state universities who were members of the American Association of State Colleges and Universities (AASCU). (See Appendix B for listing of consortium members.)

## The Present and Future of the Consortium

In April 1987, two delegations of Chinese educators from Liaoning and Xinjiang Provinces visited the USA in conjunction with the annual meeting. There plans were made to take a delegation of Fulbright-Hays Group Project Abroad participants to China for a six-week study tour of Chinese culture and history. Also, plans were made to conduct an institute in China for Chinese administrators in management and effective schools. A third group of American educators formed an investigation team to visit Xinjiang Province, a remote western province, to determine desirable programs for implementation. Each of these programs were conducted as described.

In addition, student and faculty exchanges have begun and a number of Chinese faculty in teacher education are currently pursuing advanced degrees in various member institutions. Several hundred textbooks and curricular materials have been shipped to China for distribution to sister institutions of which 17 have been formalized. Four American professors are in China to teach technical English to students preparing to study in USA.

Two new provinces have applied for membership in the Consortium, Qinghai and Gansu. These provinces sent delegations to the United States in April of 1988. As a part of an exchange agreement, the Liaoning Province sent a lecture team of four to provide lectures on Chinese education, history, culture, and economics. These individuals traveled for more than 35 days lecturing in Consortium institutions.

## Summary

The activities of the Consortium continue to increase beyond expectation. One of the greatest problems is financing activities. Currently, each member institution pays an annual fee of $750. China has no western dollars to spend in USA, but they are generous in their support of Consortium activities in China. The Consortium operates with a Chinese executive director and an elected executive committee of seven individuals.

## 5.2.1 The Academic Preparation of Corporate Educators (USA): How It Challenges Teacher Education

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Programs for corporate educators (USA) have developed within the past 5-10 years (Pace, Peterson & Porter, 1986). A brief background on corporate education and its growth sets the stage for a consideration of teacher education's response to its corporate counterpart.

### Corporate education (USA) is:

- the largest provider of adult education in the U.S.
- A "rival" of public and private sector education in its annual educational expenditures, clientelle served, and its wide-ranging curriculum
- the provider of most skills after age 25 and the job skills of 2 of every 3 Americans (ASTD, 1986).

### Corporate education is expected to grow:

- training is needed to improve productivity, to become more competitive internationally, to retrain for new jobs and skills and to address a changing demography
- the numbers trained, the amount of training and the number of trainers are increasing
- there is increasing commitment to training on the part of companies and policymakers (ASTD, 1986)

### Responses to the need for corporate educators include:

- the recent proliferation of academic programs in training and development/human resource development (undergraduate, graduate and certificate) (Pace, Peterson & Porter, 1986)
- train-the-trainer workshops, seminars and courses sponsored by professional/service organizations, colleges and universities, private companies and independent consultants (DiPaolo & Patterson, 1983)
- research on the academic preparation of corporate trainers and competencies needed by these professionals

### The Challenge for Teacher Education

According to one estimate, one-half of our teacher education graduates have already obtained employment in business, government and other settings (Rooze & Ishler, 1985), and the trend toward teachers seeking positions in industry is increasing. Thus, teacher education programs may choose to broaden their mission by including the preparation of corporate educators. (See Case and Matthes, 1985, for a further discussion.)

This is a viable option for several reasons. First, of the 31 competencies of training professionals identified in the ASTD "Models for Excellence" study, (the most comprehensive study available at the time of this writing), only a few are specific to the business setting. Therefore, teacher preparation may already address many of these competencies.

Secondly, surveys suggest that teachers and other educators are skilled in areas deemed important by training managers/professionals. Third, training managers say they would hire teachers and thought they could function effectively in business (Weischadle, 1984).

As yet, there is no agreed upon model for the preparation of corporate educators. However, program developers may draw implications from selected ASTD publications on academic programs and competencies, and the ongoing work of its professors' network. The entire literature of the training profession,academic and practitioner-oriented, also informs the curriculum development process. (See "Selected References".)

Promising "State-of-the-art" Practices

A recent dissertation study (Alter, 1988) examined selected programs nationwide to determine how corporate educators were prepared. Findings based on graduate and certifica programs suggested a competency-focused, application-based, collaborative effort with business.

Programs have appeared in a number of different departments and lend themselves to interdisciplinary input. However, a focus on developing competencies required by business is the critical factor, not the department housing the program.

Often ASTD's "Models for Excellence", roles and competencies or the International Board of Standards' "Instructional Design Competencies" organize the curricula. Company needs are sought at this initial goal-setting stage. The training literature also suggest the need for a future-focused orientation, utilizing material such as ASTD's recently identified 14 key influences on the U.S. work environment (Galagan, 1987).

Present and future competency needs are identifiable on both national and regional levels. We could make more use of such data in teacher education. In addition, training managers and gurus in the training field recognize the importance of abilities to solve performance problems in a company, which necessitate a background more broad than just instructional design. Programs I have studied emphasize both organization and management, and learning and instruction. And teacher education, likewise, needs more than narrowly conceived competency goals to prepare for the wideranging roles teachers play.

Programs I observed, are remarkable in the degree to which emphasis is placed on competency development. Numerous examples can be cited of 1) content knowledge being skill-related, even in a philosophy course; 2) active involvement--with computers, work task analysis, and actual "on-the-job" experiences in more than just internship courses; 3) behavioral approaches with immediate correction and feedback, and a hefty percentage of time devoted to guided practice, independent practice and one-on-one meetings with the professor. Teacher education can learn from this focus on skill development which does not appear to lower reasoning levels or ignore theory.

Finally, a collaborative effort with business is observable throughout curriculum planning, as competencies are selected and developed. The programs model real world training methods, and use cases, materials and tools which are authoritative in the business world.

Academia is flexible enough to allow for the legitimacy of business values and needs in these programs. A close collaboration is observable throughout curriculum development, utilizing formal and/or informal connections of several types (i.e., advisory councils, professional organizations, collaborative research, internships). Although business and higher education have different goals, cooperative arrangements are increasingly evident and opportunities for teacher education abundant.

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# 5.2.2. DESIGNING AN IMPROVED TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAM

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The current quest for quality in Education has begin to have a significant effect on teacher preparation programs across the Country. In response to this quest for quality, colleges of education are busy scrutinizing and, in many cases, redesigning their offerings, the ultimate goal being the preparation of a high quality educators. An important aspect of these efforts has been incorporating research on effective teaching and schooling to improve initial preparation programs.

While there seems to be some general agreement throughout the teacher education profession relative to the characteristics and skills that teachers should possess as a result of their preparatory programs, viewpoints and positions regarding the structure, content and implementation processes for new or redesigned teacher preparation programs have been numerous and varied. One reason for this is basically a philosophical one which relates to diverse professional opinions regarding the nature and content of the courses, as well as the role and responsibilities of the K-12 school systems. Other reasons, however, relate to a variety of outside mitigating factors, such as (1) specific certification requirements mandated or recommended by state departments of education, (2) the short amount of time that colleges have been given by governmental agencies to redesign their programs, (3) the variety of liberal arts requirements that have been added to undergraduate programs in all disciplines in universities and colleges across the country, and, (4) the generally negative attitudes towards teacher education held by college and university faculty outside the field of education.

The task of developing programs which are fresh and innovative but which are also practical, sensitive to numerous restraining factors, and ultimately appropriate for preparing teachers in a specific area of the country, is most complex. While there is, of course, already an ever-growing body of professional literature currently available, the valuable resources for new approaches to preparing teachers in a specific setting are those that exist (1) in the university environment itself, namely, the teacher education faculty; (2) local area public school professionals; and, (3) faculty colleagues outside the College of Education. A description of how one university approached this task is provided in the paragraphs to follow.

At Mississippi State University, the COE faculty and administrators began its redesign developmental efforts by co-sponsoring with American Association of Colleges in Teacher Education (AACTE), a national conference at Olive Branch, Mississippi, in November, 1981. One of the outcomes of this conference was a concept paper which was subsequently used in preparing the AACTE publication entitled "Educating a Profession: Profile of a Beginning Teacher." At approximately the same time, National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NACTE) was beginning its redesign efforts was under way for the subsequent enactment of the Education Reform Act in Mississippi. Certainly, the knowledge and research bases for teacher education programs have been expanding and developing considerable credibility. Dr. Tom Good, a University of Missouri researcher, spent time on the MSU campus to acquaint faculty with some of these efforts. Shortly thereafter, a plethora of reports addressing the issues associated with education in general became available. "The Nation at Risk" served as a catalyst for much reform. In February, 1985, the National Commission for Excellence in Teacher Education issued its report entitled, "A Call of Change in Teacher Education." Prior to the issuance of this report, six COE faculty attended a Commission meeting in Atlanta and Dr. Robert Egbert came to the campus to make a presentation to the faculty. Dr. C. Peter McGrath, Commission Chairman, spoke to the MSU University faculty at its annual convocation. Concurrently, several public school superintendents came to campus to discuss personnel preparation programs with faculty. Further efforts in the COE included obtaining three-year funding from the Office of Educational Research and Improvement in the National Institute of Education to address some of the issues associated with program development.

The developmental work was further fostered by major provisions of the Mississippi Education Reform Act of 1982, which, in fact, preceded The Nation at Risk report. The Act stated that the State Department of Education would no longer prescribe the curriculum to be followed; instead, teacher education institutions would have the flexibility to develop their own teacher preparation programs, the approval of which would be contingent upon the new teacher's ability to perform to an acceptable level on sixteen generic teaching competencies, which had been identified by the teaching profession.

A Professional Education Core Steering Committee (PECSC) was established by the dean and included representatives from the Dean's Office and from each of the departments with undergraduate teacher education curricula in the colleges of education and agriculture. Committee members were selected to not only include diversity of opinion, but also to include energetic individuals who had the respect of their colleagues. They were asked to conceptualize a defensible model program based upon research, the knowledge base and proven practices, not to be overly concerned about its length, with the understanding it could be extended beyond

the conventional eight semesters, but that additional funding was not necessarily available. Further, it was agreed that the traditional courses were not sacrosanct, and the committee should not devote energy to the managerial issues of departmental listing of courses and faculty resource allocations.
Other parameters include the University's required 45 semester hours general education core, the American College Test College Outcome Measures Program (ACT COMP) admission test, a 250 G.P.A. admission requirement, satisfactory completion of the National Teachers Exam, and 12 weeks of student teaching.

Its initial task was to develop a philosophical and procedural direction for the professional education curriculum. The work progressed in several stages, the first being the identification of resources which would be useful in the development of curriculum content. In addition to Mississippi's Sixteen Professional Teaching Competencies and other teaching competencies considered important by the committee, the group utilized the results of the OERI grant entitled, "Research Applications for Teaching" (RAFT), the NCATE redesign, the existing professional core curriculum, and various timely publications (such as "Profile of a Beginning Teacher"). Input was also solicited from all teacher education faculty relative to their individual professional expertise and from public school teachers and administrators. From this study, a comprehensive knowledge base was subsequently developed. An important element of the knowledge base was the RAFT Project which included the detailed planning of six instructional modules to emphasize the following skills: 1) cognitive understanding of research on effective teaching and schooling; 2) strategies for developing effective classroom interactions; 3) classroom management skills; 4) instructional and implementational skills for rural youth from widely divergent socioeconomic and ethnic backgrounds; 5) student evaluation skills, and, 6) application of the above skills to content areas.

The next stage involved a study of the knowledge base relative to Mississippi's Sixteen Professional Teaching Competencies and additional ones (labeled MSU Competencies). This resulted in the narrowing of the knowledge base into five broad areas, each independent from, and yet dependent upon, the other. It was at this time that the committee expressed a strong concern that the new curriculum not exist as isolated, one-time courses representing the various knowledge bases. The need for as much integration as possible became of prime importance, as did the need for numerous applications of theory throughout the process. In this regard, the committee adopted a "spiral" concept which specified that integrated instruction during successive semesters would build upon prior knowledge and culminate with the student teaching experience. An important dimension of the program will be that of having faculty model exemplary diverse instructional strategies.

Another important event in the redesign efforts occurred in December, 1986, when MSU was invited to be a charter member of the Holmes Group, which is a consortium organized around the twin goals of the reform of teacher education and reform of the teaching profession. After careful study and deliberations, it was decided that membership in The Holmes Group could be advantageous because of the information and data that might become available even though some of the basic tenets were not necessarily acceptable. Membership in the consortium has also been valuable because it has given some continued momentum to the redesign efforts.

An advisory panel of faculty from the College of Education and the College of Arts and Sciences, as well as public school teachers and principals, reviewed the modules before they were pilot tested in the past academic year. The results indicated the effectiveness of the modules as students' attitudes toward teaching were more positive after the experience of the pilot program.

The third stage involved the organization of the Professional Education Core Curriculum (PECC) in a spiral fashion into four sub-cores, beginning with the first semester of the junior year, with students progressing from Core I through Core IV in cohort groups. The logistics for the PECC are supervised by an associate dean. Interdisciplinary instructional teams, based on recommendations from the PECSC, are formed and are given primary responsibility for implementing the content of the modules.

Although additional developmental efforts and revisions are continuing, implementation of the new professional education core began in September, 1988. Students and faculty seem to be elated with what is transpiring. In fact, the excitement has become contagious as additional faculty are becoming eager to have teaching assignments in the new program. Follow-up studies have been designed to determine if the teaching competencies of graduates have improved over those teachers completing prior programs.

Some challenges remain such as having the needed printed instructional materials. Appropriate faculty will need to be identified and provided with additional opportunities for further personal professional development and growth. Additional use of technology and bonafide clinical settings for instructional purposes will require our best thoughts and efforts, but we remain optimistic.

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5.2.3

# NATIONAL CHANGES IN TEACHER EDUCATION IN ENGLAND AND WALES - A RESPONSE TO SOCIETAL NEEDS?

Public dissatisfaction with standards of education in the state system has led to government intervention. One of the strategies is to appoint a Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (CATE) whose mandate is to develop appropriate criteria by which teacher education institutions shall be assessed for accreditation.

Governments' previous influence on teacher education has been largely exerted through Her Majesty's Inspectorate. CATE, while noting the views of the Inspectorate, has nevertheless coerced institutions to effect radical changes of direction and methodology by withholding accreditation. Local committees have been set up to facilitate the approved changes at institutional level.

A complementary inservice program, largely government funded, but locally determined and administered has recently started. This program seems to be respondong to society's needs more effectively. Interprofessional cooperation and vision are essential to overcome the difficulties encountered in the sudden changes of pattern and organisation of inservice work.

## 5.3.1 TEACHER INDUCTION: A PLAN TO FACILITATE THE TRANSITION

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### RATIONALE

The transition from supervised teaching to independent teaching is stressful. Some writers and researchers refer to this as "transition shock" or "reality shock." First-year teachers, who are usually idealistic in their thinking and frequently unrealistic in their expectations of teaching, experience stress and anxiety when they become aware of their many responsibilities and their limited skills. Kevin Ryan has said, "Whether one's source is educational research or teachers' lounge stories, the implication is clear; beginning teachers need help in adjusting to their new life."

Veenman's (1984) summary of 83 studies of the needs of beginning teachers reports that the most frequently reported concerns were classroom discipline, student motivation, dealing with individual differences, testing and assessment, communication with parents, organization of class work, insufficient materials and supplies, and dealing with problems of individual students. Although Henry's (1986) survey of principals and first-year teachers at the middle and high school level revealed that the beginning teachers had knowledge of subject matter, they had difficulty in teaching skills such as maintaining order in the classroom, providing for individual differences, helping students with reading difficulties, and asking higher order questions. Other researchers have reported that beginning teachers have problems with discipline, student motivation, dealing with individual differences, classroom management, instructional techniques, and professionalism. Many studies also showed that beginners felt isolated.

Much recent research reveals that beginning teachers have many problems and that "under current conditions, the newcomers have to learn to swim very quickly or they will sink" and this results in a "survival mentality." (Ryan, 1970; Lortie, 1975; Elias, Fisher, and Simon, 1980; Bush, 1983; Boynton, DiGeronimo, and Gustafson, 1985; Odell, 1986.) Peterson (1982) wrote that the first year of teaching is the most crucial period in a teacher's career. Sandefur (1982) indicated that the lack of appropriate induction is the major cause of teachers leaving the profession during the first three years of teaching. Stone (1987) has cited the areas of discipline, motivating students, dealing with individual differences, and class organization as being most problematic for teachers during their initial year.

### PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT

The University of Wisconsin-Whitewater Teacher Induction Program was initiated in 1974 to provide a program of assistance and support for beginning teachers by a team of professionals from local participating schools and a university consultant. The university field-tested the program until 1984. During this ten-year period it was evaluated and modified to meet the needs of beginning teachers. As a result of this experimentation, interest in the program has grown steadily and the number of first-year teachers participating has tripled from 1984 to 1987. A total of 101 new teachers, 108 mentors, 21 school districts, and 45 university faculty have been involved in the program.

### PROGRAM ENDORSEMENTS

The Program has received the Distinguished Achievement Award (1985) from the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, the Showcase for Excellence Award (1984) from the American Association of State Colleges and Universities, the Program Development Award (1984) from the Wisconsin Association of Teacher Educators, and in 1980 was cited by the Educational Testing Service as an exemplary program for beginning teachers.

### PROGRAM GOALS

The goals of the Teacher Induction Program are:

1. to establish a collaborative professional team responsible for providing assistance and support for the first-year teacher;
2. to help the new teacher develop skills and judgments that successful teachers possess;

3. to explore numerous teaching strategies;
4. to provide inservice experiences for the mentors in the participating schools.

## PERSONNEL

The University of Wisconsin-Whitewater Teacher Induction Program focuses on continuous assistance and support for the beginning teacher throughout the entire first year. A team, consisting of (1) the inductee (new teacher), (2) the mentor teacher--a teacher in the local school who is teaching in the same subject/grade level as the inductee, and (3) an administrator of the local school, is formed. A university consultant, who is a specialist in the subject/grade level of the inductee, is a member of the team. Providing the resources of the university and an awareness of current research, the consultant also facilitates communication within the team. The three members of the local school team meet weekly to assist the new teachers. The university consultant makes monthly on-site visits.

Mentor teachers are selected by appointment of building principal or by selection by the building principal and a committee of teachers. The mentors, all successful teachers, are flexible, confident, and resourceful. They are willing to participate and contribute to the program, understand the curriculum of the local school, and know the school system philosophy, policies, and procedures.

## PERSONAL DEVELOPMENT PLAN

After the team is identified, the first-year teacher begins his/her Personal Development Plan under the guidance of the induction team. This Plan assists the new teacher in identifying his/her specific concerns about teaching and in setting goals and organizing those goals in six major categories: (1) management of student conduct, (2) planning, (3) instructional organization and development, (4) presentation of subject matter; (5) communication; and (6) testing.

The novice receives assistance in developing his/her plan through weekly meetings with the team and through monthly seminars with team members and university staff. At the weekly meetings, the team assists the beginning teachers in (1) identifying achievements, (2) setting goals for resolving concerns identified by the new teachers, and (3) assisting in identifying the methods and procedures for achieving those goals. The inductee is expected to make daily/weekly entries in the plan in preparation for weekly team meetings at which time those entries can be discussed. This plan is a continuous working document throughout the year.

## EVALUATION

The induction teams does not participate in the evaluation of the new teacher. The building principal, or some designated individual, has this responsibility. It is to be noted that the team's role is to assist the new teacher prepare for the evaluation process.

## SEMINARS

In an attempt to reduce or minimize the stress of beginning teachers while at the same time facilitating growth, monthly seminars are held for all members of the induction team. Scheduling of the seminars has been variable. Some are held during the day and others after school, depending on the feasibility within the local situation. Some administrators viewed the program as being so valuable that they have hired substitute teachers to free the mentors and inductees for the seminars. They have also provided substitutes for the mentors and inductees when the university consultant makes an on-site visit.

Seminar topics have been selected on the basis of published research as well as regional needs assessment efforts conducted by the faculty. These sources indicated that the first-year teachers need information and reinforcement in the following areas.

Orientation: A two-day orientation session is scheduled in late August before school starts. The university program director explains the Teacher Induction Program to the induction teams and respective roles and responsibilities are delineated. First-day concerns for the inductees are considered.

Classroom Management: This seminar, usually held after 2-3 weeks of school when the new teachers are aware of the classroom and their students, considers various plans for classroom management. The issue of creating teacher control in an assertive, yet humanistic way, is presented.

Parent Teacher Conferences: Because many teachers confer with parents at the end of the first grading period, this seminar is scheduled a week or two prior to conference time.

Evaluation and Grading: The beginning teachers and team members examining the practical applications of the six taxonomic levels within Bloom's Cognitive Domain. The teachers are shown techniques to help them move above the knowledge level in their instruction.

Student Motivation: Motivation is often a process of helping students change some of their negative attitudes. This seminar focuses on ways to help students realize that since they choose their attitudes, they are in control of changing them.

A New Look at Mainstreaming: This seminar considers (1) an identification of exceptionality, (2) dealing with and meeting of specific needs, (3) effective teaching techniques, and (4) materials that can be used in curriculum development, assignments, and testing and evaluation.

Gifted and Talented and Creative Learner: While the literature does not identify this topic as a primary concern of teacher inductees, a regional needs assessment indicated otherwise. This seminar consists of two parts: (1) a simulation exercise to help teachers look at the identification of gifted students and methods; and (2) techniques for teaching students who are gifted.

Anatomy of a Lesson: The seminar leader reviews the components of a well-organized lesson using Madeline Hunter's seven effective teaching concepts.

## CONCLUSIONS

There are several follow-up studies of the University of Wisconsin-Whitewater Teacher Induction Program. One study, Parker, (1986), evaluated the efficiency of the program and found:

1. all of the experimental group (inductees) completed the first year of teaching while only 82 percent of the control group (matched, non-induction beginning teachers) did so;
2. 75 percent of the experimental group indicated they planned to be teaching in 5 years while only 25 percent of the control group felt likewise;
3. all of the inductees felt free to seek assistance from their mentor/principal/consultant while the control group felt they had no one to assist them.

Varah/Theune (1985 and 1986) surveyed administrators involved in the program and they indicated:

1. fewer student discipline referrals, parent complaints and faculty criticisms regarding the classrooms of the inductees;
2. a close colleagial relationship with the mentor was largely responsible for the inductee's success.

Grotelueschen (1987) compared the responses of 35 program inductees with a matched control group of first year teachers not in a formal program of assistance and support. The research obtained information from each subject on a pre- and post-test instrument containing 31 items grouped into topics of discipline, planning, professional commitment, and other topics. The results were nearly all in favor of the experimental group. His findings reveal that program participants feel an increased commitment to teaching, plan to remain in teaching longer, and perceive an increased growth in their teaching skills. One finding was statistically significant was in the area of classroom management and discipline where the experimental group reported more growth and more definite control of the situations encountered in the classroom than did the control group.

McKenna (1988) interviewed 37 mentor teachers participating in the program during the 86-87 year to determine the effects of the program on the mentor teacher. The researcher used a survey instrument and in-depth interviews with the 37 mentors. The study found mentor teachers:

1. receive very specific kinds of benefits from serving as a mentor;
2. role functions in an induction program were advisor, counselor and supporter, thus characterizing the role of mentor as distinctly different from that of a cooperating teacher;
3. grew professionally and grew in self-esteem.

## SUMMARY

The University of Wisconsin-Whitewater program of assistance and support is an effective way to reduce the attrition of new teachers, to reduce the problems of a new teacher in school, to increase the effectiveness of the new teachers, to renew and challenge the mentor who works with the new teachers, to assist the building principals in their work with faculty and new teachers, and to provide an opportunity for the university to be a partner in this collaborative effort.

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5.3.2

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# A STUDENT-OUTCOMES PROGRAM GROUNDED IN LIBERAL LEARNING

The College of Saint Teresa, Winona, Minnesota, is committed to integrate liberal learning and professional education according to its statement of mission and goals. The Desirable Characteristics List articulates these general student outcomes. The success of the Design for Choicemakers Program rests on four phases: 1) Collaborative Planning, 2) Design, 3) Pilot-Testing, and 4) Implementation. This program, a project of Quality Undergraduate Education, incorporates the three major delivery systems of the college -- academic, student affairs, and pastoral services. Teacher education and the nursing program in conjunction with the Mayo Foundation have long traditions of excellence at the College of Saint Teresa.

Phase One, Program Planning, began with a new understanding of the concepts of developmental and student-centered education. This focus, in turn, grew from the 1973 Mission and Identity Statement which articulated that the College of Saint Teresa set out not only to develop students intellectually, professionally and personally, but also to provide an integrated education. The entire college community initiated a year of self-study and reflection to develop a program that would express its fundamental purpose through its structure, functioning, and programs.

A project director and internal evaluator were given release time to develop the target academic program. Diverse campus groups and individuals were involved in program planning and development. A campus team, consisting of the Dean of Academic Affairs, Dean of Students, Internal Evaluator, and Project Director worked with a Liberal Studies and Advisory Board. Together they promoted faculty/staff development projects, made recommendations about basic skills courses, a writing and quantitative skills inservice program, a values education inservice program, linkage between curriculum and co-curriculum, a development portfolio/transcript program, and student leadership network.

The characteristics related to personal development are derived from the development task clusters characterizing late/post adolescence suggested by Judith Price, Theodore Miller and Roger Winston. These researchers follow Sanford and Chickering. The core courses and the professional major courses, especially in teacher education, attempt to support student movement along the Perry scale of ethical/intellectual development. The maturation theory of Douglas Heath, who served as an initial consultant to the program in its planning stage, is the foundation of much of its eventual form. Workshops on instructional styles made the faculty and staff familiar with the teaching/learning style instruments of Kolb, Grash-Reichman, Canfield, Joseph Hill, Fuhrman-Jacobs. Lee Knefflecamp presented a workshop on women's learning, based on the research of Carol Gilligan. Recently, the collaborative research of Belenky, Clinchy, Goldburger, and Tarule, Women's Ways of Knowing, has been studied.

Institutional research services provided standardized profiles of student classes. The ACE orientation questionnaire, the ACT COMP outcomes assessment, and a locally-designed liberal studies assessment provided annual student profiles. Marketing studies from the Admissions Office provided additional information about our students. Analogues of the environment theory of Rudolph Moos gave other information on the college climate. Two external consultants, William Berquist, senior consultant to Project QUE, and Hattie Bishop, research associate, interviewed students, rated their reflections, and administered learning style instruments to them in preparation for an inservice workshop.

The second phase of the QUE model, to select, design, and pilot-test a target program for student-outcomes education took two years. Many specific components were completed though summer institutes in which participants engaged in a three-phase Delphi process to refine the priorities for desired outcomes. Goals, strategies, and time lines were established and monitored by faculty members and staff members. Plans for both a formative and summative evaluation were proposed and adopted before the design and implementation phases began. The formative program evaluation was an adaptation of Stufflebeam's evaluation model: Content, Input, Process, and Product. At this stage, the Context study included a year-long exploration of institutional priorities, including needs assessments. Following the Stufflebeam model, evaluation was focused on decision-making.

In addition, the implementation team set up independent Criteria for Success and Criteria for Effectiveness, including achievement of consensus by faculty and staff and increased faculty competence as a result of inservice workshops. Students and faculty were to use a common language to identify, clarify, and articulate values. Faculty, staff, and students worked together to translate the pilot project outcomes into objectives, progressing from the idealistic to the realistic in program development, engaging in community and consensus building, and evaluation.

The third phase of Pilot Testing resulted in revision of the program from the response to actual course work and programs, rather than from an ideal structure. Significant revisions were made in the system for awarding funds for proposals, the development portfolio, and the required freshman and senior courses. Tests included the Watson-Glasser Critical Thinking Appraisal, the Omnibus Personality Test, the Clark-Trow

Philosophy of Education Scale. Written reports, process reflections, oral presentations, learning contracts, staffing conferences, job performance, peer review, rating forms, interviews, work samples, attendance records, questionnaires, problem-solving sessions, self-monitoring, case studies, and protocol analyses all provided valuative information to develop the Design for Choicemakers program.

Participation in Project QUE planning and programming resulted in improvements in teaching, specifically in writing, team teaching, valuing, computer literary, syllabus-writing, learning styles, Perry-Scale Consciousness/King's Model of Reflective Judgment, and outcomes-based teaching. The required courses for freshmen and senior seminar developed interdisciplinary models for faculty teams. Participation in the project stimulated a great deal of discussion about how quality education should both be defined and measured. Previously, faculty had viewed programs and courses to be of high quality primarily by value of their content. Now, quality is defined as student attainment of personal and professional characteristics and skills which lead to integrated growth.

Although the Desirable Characteristics are listed in clusters, no order of importance is intended. It is recognized that there is a natural overlapping among clusters and characteristics. Under the Design for Choicemakers Program, the student, with the assistance of the college community, is enabled to engage in Critical Thinking: 1) to reason analytically, 2) to engage in reflective thinking, 3) to synthesize a point of view, 4) to evaluate and choose among alternatives, 5) to apply abstract concepts to concrete experience, 6) to apply knowledge from the undergraduate major field.

Aesthetic and Cultural Development enables students: 1) to acknowledge the presence of mystery, 2) to demonstrate an understanding of major forms of artistic expression, 3) to appreciate and participate in a variety of cultural and artistic experiences, 4) to convey meaning through creative experience. Students are enabled in Communication: 1) to use various from of writing competently, 2) to use effective oral communication, 3) to receive and interpret information effectively, 4) to use quantitative tools effectively.

Students are enabled to attain a Depth of Perspective: 1) to demonstrate familiarity with the ways of knowing in the arts, humanities, and social sciences, 2) to interpret current problems with historical, cultural, political, global, philosophical and spiritual perspectives, 3) to demonstrate an understanding of one's faith heritage, 4) to understand the value systems operative in contemporary society, 5) to develop an ability to live meaningfully in a technological society.

Students are enabled toward Autonomy: 1) to develop a healthy self-concept including an awareness of one's sexuality, potentials and limitations, values and beliefs, 2) to act out of one's self-awareness to complete personal goals, 3) to recognize and accept interdependence as integral to autonomy, 4) to respond personally to God's revealing of Self in one's life. Students are enabled in Social Relationships: 1) to appreciate human diversity, creeds, and value systems, 2) to demonstrate effective interaction with individuals in a variety of settings, 3) to develop and remain faithful to commitments and relationships, 4) to move toward the achievement of a common goal by maintaining group support and cooperation.

Of the thirty-three desirable characteristics, seven are reserved for self-assessment, acknowledging that students are the primary evaluators of their own experience. Student attainment of fifteen are assessed by an institutionally-devised objective instrument. The remaining are mapped into major programs, the complex of breadth courses, and the co-curricular programs. Students, faculty, student affairs staff, pastoral team and administrators measure the Design for Choicemakers program according to the quality indicators of Project QUE: attractive, beneficial, congruent, distinctive, effective, functional, and growth-producing. The results profile our assessment.

Phase four of Project QUE includes Implementation of the Design for Choicemakers program to help students achieve the outcomes of a liberal education. Course work, field experience, travel, volunteer work, leadership, and leisure activities all contribute to a student's total education. The required breadth courses and the work in the major support program goals: valuing process, critical reasoning, and creative life planning. Students are required to choose courses in six major areas: humanities, social and behavioral sciences, natural sciences and mathematics, fine and performing arts, religious studies, and physical well-being. One third of these are upper division courses. Major courses are mapped against the general college outcomes so that the sequence of the major becomes a cohesive component of a liberal education. Strands of these outcomes are identified in every course in a student's major field.

The Desirable Characteristic List is a set of student outcomes whose attainment is supported by all aspects of the college program and encompasses the total student experience. It was planned and implemented according to Project QUE guidelines and partially funded by the Kellogg Foundation through the Council of Independent Colleges. The College of Saint Teresa was assisted by funds from the Northwest Area Foundation to develop the program. This comprehensive program continues to provide an integrative education process of intellectual, personal, and spiritual development. This growth is demonstrated by students and graduates in their conscious choice-making, leadership, and service that contribute to a human world order.

## 5.3.3 MIDDLE GRADE EDUCATION: TASK FORCE REPORT
## IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHER EDUCATION

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After many years of silence in the research regarding middle grade (6th, 7th, 8th) education, attention finally is being focused in this area.

Last year, Bill Honig, California State Superintendent of Public Instruction recognized the lack of attention in this area and appointed a State Task Force to address this situation. The group was comprised of representatives from every educational community (elementary, secondary, higher education, rural, suburban, urban; student, teacher, administrator, board member, researcher and practioner). Together we hammered out the multiple issues, discussed ideas, expressed our divergent viewpoints and formulated our report. With the publication of "Caught in the Middle, Educational Reform for Young Adolescents in California Schools", middle school education was brought out of the shadows and cast on center stage. Through the cooperation of the State Department of Education, higher education and K-12 education, beneficial change is occurring. There is a great excitement about all of the collaborative efforts of these groups to address middle grade education.

As a result of this renewed interest, there are a number of implications for preservice and inservice education. According to the report, the professional preparation of middle grade teachers should include specialized knowledge of the core curriculum, the acquisition of a broad repertoire of instructional strategies which relate to active learning and a "comprehensive knowledge of the developmental characteristics of young adolescents." (1).

Educators can readily identify major characteristics of this age student. They are curious, active, strong-willed, and ego-centered. There are tremendous discrepancies in physical size and constant shifts in moods. They exhibit erratic behavior which can be endearing or infuriating. They are on the thin line between child and adult and are frequently unpredictable as to which side they will choose. They sway between their peer group and their family, constantly seeking the answer to, "Who am I?" They are challenging constantly. We have known their characteristics for a long time but until recently teacher training and inservice have not focused on how to utilize these characteristics to make instructional delivery increasingly effective.

According to the report of Carnegie Forum on Education and Economy, "A Nation Prepared: Teachers for the 21st Century", the focus of schooling must shift from teaching to learning, from the passive acquisition of facts and routines to the active application of ideas and problems. That transition makes the role of the teacher more important not less."(2)

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1 "Caught in the Middle, Educational Reform for Young Adolescents in California Schools,", State Department of Education, Sacramento, 1987 P.131

2 Ibid P. 40

Active rather than passive learning provides for two-way communication, responds to individual needs and uses teacher and student strengths. Teachers need to become familiar with productive strategies and techniques in order to ensure meaningful learning. Work with various configurations within the class (whole class, small groups, pairs, individuals) should be encouraged. Effective teaching research needs to be incorporated into each teacher's repertoire (e.g. stating the lesson purpose, sequentially developing the ideas, utilizing questioning strategies, involving higher order thinking, constantly monitoring, providing guided and independent practice, closing with a summary and providing systematic evaluation).

It is recommended that early field experiences be provided in order for students to become familiar with middle grade students and the school environment. The California State University system has developed such a program in which students serve as paid tutors to middle grade students. After this experience a number of university students have changed their major and decided to become teachers at this level. K-12 school officials are meeting with officials from institutions of higher learning to develop other collaborative relationships.

Rouche and Baker in "Profiling Excellence in American Schools" have summarized the research related to qualities of exemplary teaching into three catergories: motiviation, interpersonal skills and cognitive skills. High motivation and strong commitment are characteristic. There is a connection between teacher and student that goes beyond the classroom. This working partnership creates a bond which is rewarding to both the student and the teacher. Teachers are alert to what is happening in the classroom and monitor accordingly. A caring concern is evident. Students are seen as individuals whose needs vary. Teachers diagnose needs and learning styles, and then incorporate that knowledge into planned instructional activities. A broad repertoire of delivery skills provides varied instruction. New methods are sought and incorporated. There is a genuine excitement regarding education and an ongoing commitment to growth.

Continuous staff development is a key to success. After a goal setting process has occurred at the individual site and district goals have been developed, staff development should be aligned with these goals. The three main themes suggested by the report relate to academic content, human interaction skills and pedagogical theory and practice. Specific staff development possibilities are:"...defining school philosophy, curriculum planning, learning about adolescent characteristics, studying the dynamics of interdisciplinary teaming, setting up advisor-advisee programs, reviewing advances in the core curriculum subjects, developing deeper understanding of learning styles, mastering the varied forms of cooperative teaching, learning group dynamics skills, studying motivational strategies, planning and implementing individual or group innovations in varied areas of professional practice, developing collaborative teaching styles, maintaining discipline, designing active learning environments, and evaluating the outcomes of programs and projects."(3) Each of these topics provide excellent opportunities for professional cooperation between universitites and school districts.

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3 Ibid, P. 142

As co-chairman of the Task Force, I felt that it was important that we study the characteristics of the middle grade student first and then develop programs and procedures which meshed with the student instead of the reverse. Consequently, as each idea was discussed, the student remained the focus. In this way our differences could be resolved and the report could reflect multiple suggestions for implementation in the areas of pre-service teacher training as well as ongoing staff development.

## 5.3.4 Project MASTER: A Model for Improving Instruction in Urban Secondary Schools

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Myths about urban schools abound: violent students who resist classroom experiences; inept teachers who survive only by indifference to slum-like surroundings in blackboard jungles "bad" schools. Similar myths exist about university colleges of education: ivory towers teeming with theories and cold-blooded researchers with surgical indifference to the suffering school bodies. Perhaps the most rewarding aspect of this project has been the constant verification of the facts that students can be challenged to attend classes and to engage in learning activities; that teachers have professional knowledge and skills which can be enhanced and encouraged, and that from the ivory towers of higher education can emerge professionals capable of peer interaction who place first the shared goals of improving instruction.

Project MASTER assumes that teachers can benefit from increasing peer interaction in a supported program of professional growth despite apparently adverse surroundings. The project grew out of a district supervisor's request for a long-range inservice program that followed the teachers into the schools instead of placing teachers in the capsules of typical Saturday workshops. The university consultant suggested a supervisory model. Unlike training programs for teachers, no sequence of instructional steps was proposed. Instead the project was based on the premise that teachers are trained professionals who have the abiltiy (which could benefit from encouragement and support) to analyze their own instruction and to use resources to plan for and to improve student learning in their classrooms. What the planners did not anticipate was the intense and contagious vitality which was generated by this professional involvement. The earliest cooperative planning included a central office mathematics supervisor, a district supervisor of secondary mathematics and science, a university supervisor in mathematics teacher education, and a professor of supervision from the university. Budget, time, resources and practicality were constantly monitored by the school personnel in the planning stages. Research and theory as well as experience in secondary school administration and supervision prompted the supervisory model which was proposed by the university. The project responded to a clear need to increase the efficacy of mathematics instruction. State and city curriculum changes had been and would continue to increase numbers of students mandated to higher standards for graduation. To increase faculty in mathematics, teachers had been recruited, and experienced mathematics teachers were asked to work with unfamiliar content and students whose ability levels were different. Instructional and informational workshops had been tried with little known effect in student learning. More information on mathematics or the teaching of mathematics was not a priority. Instructional improvement seemed to be critical; however the specific instructional problems had not been identified and their diversity was a strong probability. The structure of the project needed to be flexible enough to accept this probable divergence and to be capable of change and development. The need for monitoring project activities and provision of opportunities for constant discussion and revision were accepted by university and school participants from the beginning of the discussion. The project from the beginning needed to be:

(a) responsive to identified and emerging needs;
(b) initiated by the school district and supported by building administrators.
(c) cooperatively planned and monitored by university and school participants;
(d) viewed as teacher-centered peer interaction, and not as evaluation; and
(e) directed toward district departmental strengthening and withdrawal of university consultants.

The project began a first, tentative cycle in mathematics departments in five high schools. Participating schools were volunteers (sometimes by administrators only, more often by department chairs and administrators), as were a cluster of two or three teachers and the department chair. A first workshop explained the project and adapted a clinical supervisory model to teacher direction within peer support groups. Trained university supervisors and graduate students worked as coaches with each cluster in three cycles of observation and conferencing during the semester. The university coaches modelled, and then supported and critiqued participants in their observation and conferences cycles. Initially, department chairs were coached as supervisors, but gradually teachers who increased analytic skills also directed conferences.

This active role for teachers was reinforced by two planned visits to mathematics classrooms in non-project schools. These visits were preceeded by a general discussion of focused observation and notation techniques. Following visits, clusters analyzed the observations and each teacher logged implications for personal classroom use.

A subject centered workshop was set up for project participants and their "guests" who were teachers personally invited from participating or non-participating schools. And finally a summary workshop provided for reporting back personal and cluster experiences and for planning for future growth. This planning included district supervisors detailing specific supportive and continuing activities as well as "Contracts" drawn up for each school by cluster participants which detailed activities they would carry on to continue, increase, broaden professional growth.

Since the first cycle, a second mathematics cycle has ensued involving the initial five schools and five additional schools in another district of the city. The second moved to science departments in the same ten schools. Two additional schools have asked to sit in on the project without funded support so that they can begin similar activities. District supervisors have shadowed university coaches and anticipate periodic interactions with peer clusters in their district schools. An outside evaluator has followed and written evaluation reports on data collected in each cycle.

What were the outcomes of this project? Project participants in interviews and survey instruments reported that objectives of the project were satisfied at a high level and supervisory skills were enhanced. Consistently superior ratings were given to the project staff and to the kind of learnings experienced. A typical response was that the program made them look inside themselves to know what they were doing in their teaching and why they were doing it. The process of peer observation was embraced; relationships were established that had rationale and roots in professional improvement.

# 8.1 THE HABITUS OF TEACHER EDUCATION

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## INTRODUCTION

In this paper we adopt Bourdieu's notion of habitus to argue that teacher education is based on a technocratic rationality paradigm. This is exemplified by an emphasis on the mastery of specific techniques of practice, modelling, management and control techniques and by the over-psychologisation of the teaching and learning process. In reality, the current habitus of teacher education contributes to the domestication of teachers and encourages them to adopt a non-critical and non-reflective pedagogy. Reference will be made in the discussion to findings from our recent study of teacher education in New Zealand in order to illustrate how the prevailing habitus is reinforced and legitimated.

## SOME THEORETICAL CONSIDERATIONS

There is a growing awareness, made visible through the writings of Apple (1982) and Giroux (1981), Atkinson and Delamont (1985) and others, that the dominant ideological track in teacher education has been that of technical rationality and psychologism, or what is referred to above as "technicality". Goodman (1985) illustrates the influence of technicality when he suggests that in teacher education,

> ... good teaching has been viewed as the mastery of specific techniques of practice. Students learn to plan lessons, lead small groups, grade tests and literally hundreds of other techniques in their preparation courses.
> (Goodman, 1985, p.46)

In effect, these explicit rules and recipes for good teaching constitute a paradigm which is the dominant arm of the theory and knowledge base in teacher education. This paradigm forms the habitus of teacher education - that which initially shapes our perceptions, thinking, appreciation and action (Bourdieu and Passeron, 1977) within teacher education. Moreover, this paradigm has a position of dominance which exerts a degree of hegemonic control (Gramsci, 1971) and prevents lecturers, students and teachers from having grievances

> ... by shaping their perceptions, cognitions and preferences in such a way that they accept their role in the existing order of things, either because they can see or imagine no alternative to it or because they value it as divinely ordained and beneficial.
> (Lukes, 1974, p.24)

An important part of the habitus of teacher education is the belief that instilling knowledge and theory about the technical dimension of good teaching is the business of teacher education.

In turn, theory is not seen to be the business of classroom practitioners; these practitioners face pragmatic problems, and it is through the provision of theory that they are empowered to act on these problems. Thus, for most of those involved in teacher education (the students, supervising teachers, lecturers etc.), theory and practice come to be seen as two distinct entities, necessitating two different types of activity and associated with two separate sites - one the university or college, the other the school.

## AN EMPIRICAL STUDY

The theoretical framework described above was used as a starting point for a recent, nationwide study of the policies, practices and problems of the practicum for primary student teachers in New Zealand. The research involved undertaking a series of case studies at each of the six teachers colleges in New Zealand during 1986 and 1987.

In drawing together the findings from this research, one point stands out very clearly. Student teachers had developed a mind set which placed theory in one compartment and practice in another. The structure of the teachers colleges, the patterning of school based experiences and the nature of those experiences, the nature of the knowledge presented within teachers college courses, and an emphasis on a non-critical and non-reflective approach to in-school training, reinforced the dichotomy between theory and practice. In many respects a self perpetuating model of teacher education was of considerable influence here. The supervising teachers and the teachers college staff were themselves products of a system which had as its basis a gap between theory and practice. Even though all of the people interviewed and surveyed complained about the gap, it seemed that it had become taken-for-granted, and was now part of the conventional wisdom of teacher education.

A second major conclusion, and related to the above, was that the school-based experiences in all the colleges, and the teacher education programmes themselves, were based on a "banking" concept. The evidence gathered indicated that the colleges were concerned with filling up the student teachers with a large amount of information in much the same way that people put money in a bank. The hope, of course, was that eventually the investment would pay a dividend. Regrettably, given the lack of a coherent, systematic, critical, and theoretically informed teacher education programme in New Zealand, it is doubtful whether this hope is achieved very often.

## DISCUSSION

The findings of this research have demonstrated clearly that teacher education in New Zealand is predicated on what Atkinson and Delamont (1985) and others have termed "technocratic rationality". Technocratic rationality is exemplified in the present research by an over-emphasis, particularly in in-school training, on the mastery of specific techniques of practice, on skilling and on management and control techniques. Moreover, these technical aspects of teaching were often considered in a non-critical and non-reflective way, and there were many instances to reinforce this view. For example:

> ... the emphasis is on getting the trainee ready for the practical task of taking over a classroom. The ability to think critically about what you're doing does not seem to be that important. After awhile, those of us involved in teachers colleges forget to ask why we bother to promote the things that we promote. As long as trainees are in schools doing something we can decide about the reasons for doing it later.
>
> (Senior Lecturer)

Besides technocratic rationality, the habitus of teacher education in New Zealand was also characterised by an over-emphasis on ideas derived from the discipline of psychology. This is not a new criticism. Apple (1983) has voiced a similar concern in the following way:

> We [need to] take steps to reduce the over-psychologisation of educational preparation, theory and practice, and fight against the lamentable tendency of colleges of education to either eliminate or downplay the importance of courses whose very task is to situate our curricular and teaching practices in their wider social and valuative settings.
>
> (Apple, 1983, p.55)

This psychologism and technical rationality were reinforced in at least three ways. First, the knowledge presented to students in both the college programme and in the school-based components, was fragmented and compartmentalised. The structure of the colleges and the nature of the tasks given to trainees, whilst on teaching practice, compounded this problem. Second, the inculcation, and at times deliberate indoctrination, of a non-critical pedagogy was frequently identified. For example, a year two student conveyed her experience as follows:

> My ideas were totally different from my supervising teacher's. He was quite authoritarian and I felt intimidated by his teaching style. He forced me to adjust to his ways until I felt I was just like playing a role and he was writing the script for me every day. I didn't enjoy this, but as a second year trainee I didn't feel that I had enough power to bring about any kinds of changes, so I just tried to play it through.
>
> (Student Teacher - emphasis added)

This non-critical pedagogy was further evidenced by the fact that a number of teachers college staff members placed emphasis on the need to produce first year teachers who are able to survive and fit in to the existing programmes in operation in schools. As one college principal put it:

> [Our] college is recognised for producing beginning teachers who are survivors during their first years of teaching. They are able to come in on the very first day and establish routines - they have the skills to do this.
>
> (College Principal - emphasis added)

In another college, one lecturer commented that his major goal was "to ensure that the graduates from the college were happy in their teaching in subsequent years". This is quite clear evidence of an emphasis on occupational fit whereby trainees are shaped up to fit in to an existing system rather than being prepared so they are able to examine critically what Apple (1983) refers to as the "wider social and valuative settings" in which teaching takes place.

A third element in reinforcing the emphasis on psychologism and technocratic rationality was the division between theory and practice. Almost without exception, college programmes were based on the assumption that schools were sites for putting into practice the theories of teaching, learning and child behaviour that are espoused at College. The policy statements and corporate goals of the teacher education institutions clearly exemplified this division, which in the minds of students was clear cut. One student summed it up in the following way:

> Schools are the actual involvement at the practical level of teaching. College is to do with the academic sphere. The two parts are really different.
>
> (Student Teacher)

The end result for trainees of this type of conceptualisation was that they came to accept a non-critical view of teaching based on tacit understandings and craft knowledge rather than theory which has been developed through reflection, criticism and practice. Indeed, the current habitus of teacher education is such that trainees become almost atheoretical in their approach to teaching, and are insidiously encouraged to do so by the conventional wisdom expressed by a large number of teachers "that the real action takes place in schools" or the often affirmed injunction "to forget what is learned in college because the reality exists in the classroom".

The points being made here about the habitus of teacher education in New Zealand are not new or novel. Indeed, warnings have been repeatedly issued in the literature about the effects of teacher preparation being predicated on technicist models of teaching. Despite this, the current habitus of teacher education in New Zealand and elsewhere still can best be described in terms of the banking analogy used earlier. According to this analogy, the teacher education system produces teachers who have modelled themselves carefully on existing practice, who are passive and disciplined, who are non-critical and non-reflective and who complete their training as domesticated neophytes. There are some clear advantages in preparing these types of teachers if the goal of schooling is to maintain existing structures and inequalities.

(A fuller copy of this paper, including the list of references, can be obtained by writing to the authors.)

# 8.2 TOWARDS KEEPING TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAM PROMISES

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Teacher education program promises come in forms such as philosophical statements, rationales, underlying assumptions, metaphors and themes. Effectively used, these promises have the potential to communicate a program's intentions, its view of teachers, of teaching, of learners, of mind and of the curriculum. Clear promises provide an institution, its students and the community it serves with a real sense of what the program's practices and products ought to be. As they are increasingly clarified, expanded and communicated the promises guide and direct the development, review and maintenance of a program with conceptual integrity and structural unity.

Conceptual integrity and structural unity are seen as desirable ideals to be strived for in any curriculum. In the United States a group of planners surveyed by Nolan (1985) viewed coherence and unity as marks of excellence in teacher education curriculum. Kerry Kennedy (1986) in his address on A National Agenda for Excellence in Curriculum and Teaching clearly recognised the lack of and the need for conceptual integrity and structured unity in Australian teacher education programs. In a call for action, Kennedy (1986:9) said:

> The different "pieces" of teacher education must be put together so it can be viewed holistically rather than as a series of discrete unrelated experiences.

This paper focuses on the gap between program promises and their achievement. The author speculates on some reasons for this gap and suggests strategies and approaches that might be applied in striving to bridge this gap. The key is seen as the increasing clarification of promises and their effective communication through the program to, in particular, the student or trainee teacher.

In my experience program promises are often hard to find; are confused with messages or promises inherent in program practices which are, at best, similar to, and at worst, philosophically opposed to intended promises; and are rarely clear to new staff or to students. All too often student experiences within teacher education programs appear to reflect those reported by Meighan and Harber (1986:163) in a study of one institution in the United Kingdom, namely "teachers in training can be urged to operate non-authoritarian approaches to school situations by lecturers using authoritarian methods for their advocacy". It is well known that the result is students learning the methods "experienced" rather than those they are "told about". This is borne out in the HMSO (1981:11-12) report on Teacher Training and the Secondary School in England which found that teaching practices within the school were predominantly reflecting those "experienced" in teacher training. The predominant experience of students in classrooms was of note taking, passive listening and restricted reading. The clear message is that teacher education program "experiences" appear to be extremely effective. Thus where programs can make dramatic improvements is in bridging the gap between what the program promises and what the student "experiences". This begins with clarifying just what is being promised.

If this issue of clarity of promise is to be addressed seriously a number of steps are essential. Firstly a program's philosophy or view of a teacher needs to be seen as an action statement guiding every decision, every action associated with the program, its development, its implementation and its evaluation. The curriculum emphasis of the past, on learning and activity, must shift to an emphasis concerned with environment and experience. Programs need to create an environment consistent with their promises. An environment which enables students to experience, rather than simply learn about, what the program views as the ideal in teaching (Willis 1975:432).

Curriculum is an environment producing activity. This environment can only be consistent with the program's promises or intentions if those processes are continually at the forefront of the consciousness of all involved. Too often they are pushed back and ignored for the sake of expediency - only to be dragged out to support some political position within the institution.

The promises or goals need to be expanded, analysed and developed so that they are seen as dynamic guides. Their link to the broader mission of the institution needs to be explicated. Specific explication of assumptions and commitments related to valued conceptions of teaching, teacher education approaches, schooling and educational theories etc. makes it possible to focus the thoughts and actions of staff in a direction which is in harmony with the purposes of the program (Short 1987:7).

Key to enhanced integrity and unity is effective ongoing communication of the promises as they are increasingly explicated. This communication tends to be effective during periods of major program development or change. Times when staff and students are kept fully aware of and involved in the ongoing planning process. According to Short (1987:8), program promises can be effectively clarified, developed and communicated through the choice of a unifying metaphor, concept, principle or theme. 'Teacher as decision maker'; 'scholar teacher', and 'self as instrument' are examples that have been used effectively. These are easy to recall and keep in mind and are useful tools in planning, implementation, review and renewal. It is during the implementation stage, particularly after a few years in operation, that the communication of promise often falls down. Memories and enthusiasm tend to fade and the old and staid strategies take the place of more dynamic ones. The message that gets through to students about teaching and its promise is then reflected in these approaches and translated into classroom practices.

It is most likely that existing programs in Australia have had a clear view of their promises and endeavoured to achieve them. It is my view that, too often, these attempts, no matter how positive their intentions, were limited. Limited in the importance placed on the need to create an environment in which students could consistently experience the view of teaching and of education promised by the program. The focus in the past has been on what should be learnt and what should be done, rather than on what should be experienced. In 1988 with years of financial constraint, with dwindling staff numbers and increasing criticism of tertiary education and of teacher education in particular the promises seem even more vague, less important or even pipe dreams.

It is my experience in examining accreditation documents from many programs that in many cases institutions are unable to come to grips with the implications of their promises sufficiently to even document their program in a manner which demonstrates conceptual integrity and structural unity. I have found statements about a program's or institutions's educational philosophy or view of the nature of teaching that bear little relation to the assumptions implicit in the program's design and processes. Regularly the teaching strategies, the nature of assessment activities, options and responsibilities given to students are philosophically opposed to those underpinning the program's promises. Indeed these inconsistencies are working against the achievement of program excellence. I seriously question whether a program that cannot be documented to illustrate its integrity and consistency can be implemented with excellence.

It would appear that the immediate future in Australian tertiary education provides an opportunity for creative renewal. Existing programs and those that may emerge from a fresh coalescence can review and reconfirm their promises. They can clarify and expand them and communicate them effectively. Clear promises kept at the forefront at all times can be used by staff in their planning, their teaching, their induction programs and in all aspects of evaluation. They can be used by students who can experience consistency between the program's stated promises and the promises inherent in their experiences of the process provided within the program. With this basis, students are then able to begin to formulate and test their own view of teaching and education. Further the promises can be used by the community as a metrestick for evaluating the program's achievements.

## Conclusion

If a program is to achieve its promises it needs to express them clearly and communicate them through all program experiences. Essential in this effort is a quest for increasing program conceptual integrity and structural unity as these ideals are the basis of program excellence. Key to this quest is the recognition of the power of what is experienced by students over what is taught to students.

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# 8·3 EXAMINING OUTCOMES OF TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMMES: A STUDY OF NEW SOUTH WALES PRIMARY TEACHER EDUCATION GRADUATES

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***Abstract***
*This paper reports selected results of a questionnaire survey of some 520 graduates of eight teacher education programmes in N.S.W. The survey was carried out immediately prior to the students completing the three-year pre-service component (Diploma of Teaching) of their B.Ed. (Primary) degrees.*

*The general classes of variables covered by the questionnaire were:*

- *students' self-rated confidence in a variety of teaching roles and tasks,*
- *perceptions of the relative importance of sources of professional knowledge about teaching,*
- *opinions and beliefs about educational issues, and,*
- *perceptions of the causes of classroom success and failure.*

*Results of the confidence measures and of the perceived sources of professional knowledge about teaching are presented and are discussed both in terms of the general outcomes and of apparent differential programme effects.*

Both internationally and within Australia there is evident an increasing concern with the quality of teachers and teaching and with the crucial role of teacher education institutions in improving that quality.

Alongside the concern for increased quality, there is recognition that research on teacher education has been lacking but is urgently needed and that teacher education has long been the "poor research relation" in tertiary institutions. In Australia, the neglect of research in teacher education has long been recognized. For example, the 1980 Report of the National Inquiry into Teacher Education (NITE) stated:

> teacher education research and development in Australia is deficient in most areas ... there is a lack of critical social inquiry and analysis .... The record is little better in relation to investigations of specific groups of educational clients and their needs .... At the level of programs there is little published research of a longitudinal character and even less published material relating to evaluation studies of different program types (pp. 216-217).

This evaluative study of teacher education programs arose as a natural outgrowth of both an analysis of teacher education curricula in the NSW advanced education sector and of a longitudinal study underway at Northern Rivers College's Centre for Teacher Education Research and Development of how students' perceptions beliefs and attitudes change through the course of their teacher education programme. As part of the the curriculum study, an analysis has been made of the espoused Dip. Teach.(Primary) curriculum of each of the advanced education institutions in NSW (MacLeod and Rankin, 1987; Rankin, 1988) as well as of the B.Ed. ("final year") component (Barrie, 1988; Rankin, 1988) and the science education components (Skamp, 1988). As part of the longitudinal study, students at Northern Rivers College complete a lengthy questionnaire at the beginning of each year of their course and at the end of the third year of their course.

As a follow-up of these studies, each of the institutions which had participated in the curriculum study was asked, at very short notice, to participate in a questionnaire study of its 1987 graduating students. Seven institutions, covering eight programmes, agreed to participate and the overall response rate from their graduates was 70% (Range of response rates was from 39% to 90%). The questionnaire* included one section on the importance of specified sources of professional knowledge about teaching and another on perceived self-confidence in specified teaching roles, thereby providing some kind of indirect indication of effectiveness of the program. The "sources" section asked students to rate the relative importance of twelve specified possible sources of professional knowledge about teaching; the "confidence" section asked students to rate their own confidence in their ability to undertake twenty-eight specified teaching roles. Fourteen of these referred to student confidence in teaching in the specific curriculum areas of NSW primary schools; the other fourteen questions referred to other aspects of teaching including three questions on aspects of preparation for teaching. A further section of the questionnaire covered beliefs about and attitudes to teaching and a final section sought respondents' attributions of teacher and student success and failure.

This paper reports results for only two sections of the questionnaire - those concerned with perceptions of the relative importance of sources of professional knowledge about teaching and those concerned with students' self-rated confidence in the series of twenty-eight teaching roles and tasks.

## Results

Provided below are brief summaries of only the overall patterns of responses to the questionnaire items. Variations within these overall patterns apparently attributable to differential program effects will be presented in the full version of the paper.

### A. Sources of professional knowledge about teaching

The results of this section showed a very clear hierarchy of importance perceived by the graduating students in their ranking of sources of professional knowledge about teaching.

Perhaps predictably, most importance was assigned to "the practical" as seen in the two items of "practice teaching" and "on-the-job experience as a teacher" with more than 95% of all students endorsing these as being important or crucially important sources of professional knowledge. Next in order of importance came what might be termed "the relevant", i.e. courses in the content areas which students were to teach and courses in general methods, with 80-90% of students endorsing these as being important or crucially important.

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* The questionnaire was one derived from "The Survey of MSU College of Education Graduates" designed by the Office of Program Evaluation Committee of Michigan State University.

Only one of the twelve items-"Courses in the Foundations of Education"- was seen by fewer than 50% of graduating students as being an important or crucially important source of professional knowledge. At the same time, this item was viewed by 20% of all respondents as being of little importance or as unimportant.

### B. Confidence in undertaking teaching roles and tasks

The results for this section are presented in two parts, one covering confidence in undertaking a series of teaching roles and tasks and the other covering confidence in applying effective methods of teaching in the specific curriculum areas of the NSW Department of Education.

### (B.i) Non-curriculum tasks

Among the general areas, graduating students seemed to have most confidence in apparently "affective areas" such as "establishing a friendly classroom atmosphere" or "motivating students". In the area of planning and preparation for teaching, there was almost unanimous confidence in the specific task of "lesson planning" but substantially lesser confidence in "designing units and programs of study". Overall, students reported themselves as being reasonably confident in thirteen of the fourteen tasks which were listed. The exception to this was the item "Making effective use of computers in your teaching" where fewer than 30% of graduating students reported themselves as being totally or reasonably confident and more than 40% saw themselves as being somewhat or totally uncertain.

### (B.ii) Specific curriculum areas

The overall pattern of results in the fourteen specified curriculum areas again revealed a very clear hierarchy of confidence levels.

Where most students revealed most confidence was in the area of the language arts - literature, writing, reading - together with social studies.

This was followed by a group of four areas - craft, oral expression, spelling and mathematics - where more than 70% of all respondents stated themselves to be totally or reasonably confident, but with around 5% of all respondents stating some degree of uncertainty.

There then followed a group of five areas - handwriting, visual arts, health studies, drama and science - which showed progressively falling levels of confidence and a fairly regular 10% of all respondents stating some degree of uncertainty in teaching these areas effectively.

At the very bottom of the hierarchy was the area of music with fewer than half of all respondents identifying their total or reasonable confidence in this area and more than one in five identifying their lack of confidence in this area.

Analysis of results across the eight programmes revealed very substantial differences in program outcomes in the fourteen specific curriculum areas.

## Conclusions

This study had several weaknesses, most of them occasioned by the last-minute nature of its design and execution. Despite these, we believe that the study has also had several positive outcomes and that it paves the way for the systematic ongoing study of the outcomes of teacher education programmes on at least a State-wide basis.

We suspect that we have shown something of the overall state of pre-service primary teacher education in N.S.W. although we clearly cannot generalise about it without a more appropriate sampling from all programmes.

We know that we have contributed feedback of value to at least some of the programmes involved in the study.

Given our commitment of confidentiality to the programmes which did participate in the study, we cannot relate our questionnaire data to our analyses of curriculum content but we are sufficiently familiar with both data-sets to know that this exercise would be worth pursuing.

Above all, we have come to the conclusion that an exercise of this kind is well worth repeating and during 1988 we shall be seeking the co-operation of the N.S.W. institutions to carry out a similar exercise at the end of this academic year.

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## 8.4 THE BEGINNING PRINCIPALS PROJECT : PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT NEEDS AND LEADERSHIP FOR SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT

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### INTRODUCTION:

Western Australia covers an area of some 1.6 million square kilometres and services some 250,000 school students. Additionally, education has been closely controlled from Perth where the central educational administration has played an all-powerful role. Within this system, school principals have traditionally functioned significantly as the linch-pin in the chain of command structure.

In recent years Western Australian education has entered a period of profound change including declining levels of educational resources, implementation of 'Beazley Report' recommendations and a departmental functional review which emphasized devolution of responsibility to districts and schools. In this context the role of the school principal would be expected to undergo considerable redefinition and readjustment.

In 1986 the International Institute for Policy and Administrative Studies (IIPAS) at the Western Australian CAE, in conjunction with the Western Australian Ministry of Education and the Education Faculty from the University of Calgary, initiated a research project into the professional needs of beginning principals. While studies have been undertaken on the professional development needs of principals, little research has been conducted on newly appointed principals. These people became the focus of this study as it was felt that at this critical stage in their career it was possible to more clearly define the skills needed for effective school leadership.

Two areas have emerged as requiring urgent attention in a climate of devolution and consequential new demands on schools - effective school development policies and procedures and second, the related need of professional development for principals. It is useful to define what is meant by these concepts.

School Development refers to the active engagement of the school staff in devising and revising school policies and programmes with a veiw to furthering the effectiveness of the school in achieving its goals. To Madigan (1985 : 10) it is

> ... an ongoing process within the school of informed critical reflection on established policies and practices and a pooling of ideas and knowledge to improve the learning expereinces and outcomes for students.

Principal Professional Development. As the key actors in the school leadership process, principals are in the forefront of the profound changes experienced in Australian education today. Hence principals need, in a time of increasing devolution of decision-making, to take up the mantle of school level decision-making particularly as it applies to educational change.

Project Goals The project seeks to achieve the following goals:

1. To determine how newly appointed principals established leadership within their schools.
2. To examine how beginning principals provide leadership for school development.
3. To ascertain the professional development needs of beginning principals.
4. To suggest directions for principals professional development by the WACAE and the WA Ministry of Education.

The first three goals will be treated briefly here.

## RESEARCH DESIGN AND PROCEDURE

A critical perspective towards research was adopted thereby enabling the researchers not only to describe, but also to explain the unfolding social processes arising from the social interaction within the school setting (Bredo, V.I. Feinberg, 1983; Morgan, 1983; Angus, 1982)

Within this research dimension, an interpretive research methodology (Erickson, 1986) was adopted as it allowed the critical reflections of the researchers to be synthesized and debated continuously. More specifically, a case study design has been chosen as appropriate to study the leadership qualities of new principals in action. Using Adelman et.al. (1976) a case study can be set up as a bounded system. The new principal is the case and the frame of reference is definable in broad terms as the leadership qualities which are inherent in the process of principal influence.

[illegible]

With the considerations in mind, an optinum sample was seen as comprising ten principals, consisting of principals in four primary schools, three district high schools and three senior high schools. More specifically, the randomly selected principals came from class 2 primary schools (6-16 teachers), class 2 district high schools (14-25 teachers) and senior high schools (40-80 teachers).

In the Western Australian system, primary schools include students in years 1-7 (sometimes K-7), while senior high schools cover students in years 8-12. District high schools are located in the less populuous regions and include students in years 1-10 and sometimes years 11 and 12.

A research team was organised to ensure that data collection procedures meet a criterion of information adequacy. The size of the research team allowed assignment of a single researcher to data collection and analysis for each new principal. Staffing of the project, in terms of time, was intended to provide a researcher presence of the equivalent of at least ten full days at each site during the course of the school year.

A variety of methods of data collection were required to illuminate principal interventions in the field situation. A mix of non-participant observation, interviews (both semi-structured and progressively focussed), field note taking, document collection and the negotiation of products with participants were employed. Opportunities for data triangulation emerged as a result of this array of data collection methods.

## RESULTS

What has emerged from the research to date may be summarized as follows:

### ESTABLISHING LEADERSHIP:

The data revealed that beginning principals could be essentially classified in one of two categories:

(a) "heroic" leaders - those who lead from the front, who are a source of ideas and who thrust ahead to have those ideas implemented. They bring ideas with them to their new school and set about making changes soon after they arrive.

(b) "the low profile" leaders - these are leaders sensitive to the culture of the school, who delay in making changes until they are appropriate. They test the wind, are cautious and avoid off-siding staff, the result being that change is deferred until well into their principalship.

Beginning principals sought to determine where support or opposition lay and those who identify these factors early establish themselves more effectively. Determining the schools' power base appears to be an almost instinctive action. Most approaches for support were directed towards the senior staff of the school.

All beginning principals visited the school before the beginning of their first year of commencement. For those in the country areas, this was a more difficult procedure than in the metropolitan area and so visitations were fewer, number. It would appear that those principals who analysed their prospective school, visited it on numerous occasions and meet staff had a less arduous transition to the leadership position.

An expected trait of beginning principals was an attempt to establish consensus agreement amongst staff over the nature of the school and its direction. However, principals approached the issue of school-level decision-making in quite different ways. Some sought to provide a role model which other staff hopefully adopted, while others used a democractic approach to involve their staff, and yet another group chose to involve their staff by working through the senior staff of the school.

Certainly the loosely coupled nature of the secondary school demanded quite different procedures to the tightly coupled nature of the primary school. One principal found that by extending the morning tea on Mondays by five minutes, announcements and activities for the forth coming week were able to be communicated to staff.

Few beginning principals demonstrated the ability to consceptualize the direction of their school and how effective decision-making procedures should occur. Some had little understanding on how to influence staff apart from direct orders resulting from the ascribed status of position. Some principals sought refuge in their office and adopted a security blanket of administrative trivia. It was as though they were seduced by the demands of administrivia. By the same token it was difficult for staff to associate with principals who were wrestling with the "invisible problems" of the school, namely, its future direction, its culture and vision for students.

A final point worthy of note was the range of previous principal experiences that individuals brought with them to this position. Class two principals for example, may have had experience as principals in class three or four primary schools. District high school principals could possibly have had experience as principals in a primary school. In most cases, there was evidence of a more autocratic, dogmatic attitude towards leadership. Often this type of principal experienced difficulty in trying to influence a much larger group of staff in a 'new' school to move in the desired directions.

Beginning principals generally found that they had little time available to deliberately become involved in school development procedures. Indirectly many principals became involved and consequently much of the involvement was of an ad hoc and unplanned nature. There was also little evidence of planned and purposeful leadership for school development.

Some principals who sought to implement school development through their approach to change, latched on to a model for school development which was often not appropriate to the context of their school. The result was that staff resisted the principal's change attempts.

It was evident that many principals had little knowledge either of innovating school development programmes or how to implement change effectively within their school. The result was their schools became resistant to subsequent changes.

## PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT NEEDS OF PRINCIPALS

The professional development needs of principals can be categorized into four main areas - school management, leadership and human relations, curriculum instruction and external relationships.

### School Management

knowledge of school power structure;
sensitivity to school culture;
personnel management;
human resource development;
understanding of industrial relations;
effective decision-making processes;
policy - making processes;
supervising staff and performance appraisal;
accurate knowledge of function of the Ministry; and
skills in interpersonal communication.

### Leadership and Human Relations

Cultivating staff interests in school activities;
generating commitment to school development policies;
facilating staff development to a collective school view;
management of school change;
developing an effective public presence;
effective communication with staff;
supporting and encouraging non-self-starting staff; and
handling time and proportioning priorities to competing demands;

## Curriculum Instruction

Exercise instructional leadership with regard to teaching methology (primary schools in particular;
Provide clear expectations of curriculum planning, programming and evaluation;
Facilate school-level curriculum change which is carefully paced.

## External Relations

Project positive image of the school to the community;
developing an effective working relationships between the school and consultants, the school and the Ministry, the school and external agencies; and
promoting community commitment to the school and effective cooperation to the Ministry.

William Bintz

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## 8.5 WHAT IS LITERACY FOR? A CRITICAL THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVE

Teaching and learning constitute natural, fundamental, and interrelated ways of knowing. What we can learn, however, as teachers and learners, depends on the questions we can ask rather than on the answers we can formulate.

In the areas of literacy and literacy learning, for instance, much research and theoretical discussion has historically focused on formulating answers to the questions "What is literacy?" and "How is literacy learned?"

Traditionally, literacy has been defined as the ability to read, write, and compute. In recent years, however, the term literacy has been reconceptualized more as a plurality of "literacies" that include such disciplines as visual literacy, computer literacy, cultural literacy, formal literacy, functional literacy, multi-modal literacy, and even homemaker literacy. As a result, no single monolithic concept of literacy exists. Rather, it seems more helpful to view definitions of literacy along a continuum that ranges from the traditional definition as aquiring the skills associated with the use of print, to developing communication skills where communication denotes the transmission of specific information, to the liberal definition incorporating and utilizing a wide variety of literacies.

Likewise, much attention has been focused on how literacy learning is best learned. Essentially, the attention has been focused on whether technical-rational and programmed instructional theoretical orientations which stress individuality, objectivity, and efficiency (i.e. time on task) or whether natural, functional, and evolutionary approaches which stress social interaction, subjectivity, and qualitative change (i.e. whole language) are most effective.

For the most part, educators seem to endorse the notion that literacy is for individuals acquiring the skills and abilities with the use of written print that will enable them to understand others as well as be understood by others. Moreover, literacy is viewed as "the great equalizer"; that is, as the means for realizing economic opportunity, social mobility, and political power especially for the disadvantaged and dispossessed.

While recognizing the importance of continuing to explore what literacy is and how literacy learning takes place, this paper attempts to broaden the issue by asking the very neglected question "What is literacy for?" This question evolved out of my experiences working in minority education and is based on three central beliefs: 1) We have spent a disproportionate time defining, describing, and in some cases, prescribing what literacy and literacy learning is, and less time exploring for what purposes and for whose purposes do literacy and literacy learning primarily serve?", 2) Asking the question "What is literacy for?" is of critical importance to those involved in education, especially minority education, and 2) Meaningful answers to this question may be found in viewing literacy and literacy learning from a critical theoretical perspective.

I wish to argue, then, that the traditional conception of literacy as "the great equalizer" is inadequate because it overemphasizes literacy as an individual means for understanding, and underemphasizes literacy as both an indivdual and collective means of transforming social worlds. This notion of literacy as a transformative potential has its roots, I believe, in a critical theoretical perspective because it views literacy as power to qualitatively change social worlds.

Within critical theory, however, several theoretical models provide different perspectives on the relationship between schooling and society. The economic-reproductive models, for instance, posit that the social relations of schooling mirror the social relations of production within a capitalist society. As a result, schools are social institutions that reproduce economic inequality through such practices as tracking, the disparate distribution of resources, differential authority, and the implementation of a hidden curriculum.

The cultural-reproductive models, on the other hand, posit that schools simply aren't mirror reflections of society, but rather are autonomous institutions that reproduce existing power relations through the unequal production and distribution of "cultural capital"; that is, the specific knowledge, skills, and attitudes which determine what it means to be an educated person.

Still others, most notably the resistance models, purport that reproductive models are inadequate because they depict overly deterministic, mechanistic, and one-way notions of domination and social control. Rather, resistance models suggest that the notion of human agency must be taken into account when examining the relationship between schooling and society. This agency is a process whereby individuals actively, not passively, produce and reproduce their social worlds through explicit and implicit oppositional behavior.

Resistance models in particular have been influential in establishing and articulating a theoretical framework for the development of a critical view not only of literacy and literacy learning, but also pedagogy. This framework argues that teachers and students need to view themselves and be viewed by others as "transformative intellectuals." Moreover, this framework holds that literacy and literacy learning are learning potentials to be used for both individual and collective empowerment. What's important here is that this framework not only views empowerment in terms of skill acquisition which enable students and teachers to better understand and represent their social worlds, but even more importantly views empowerment in terms of strategies that enable students and teachers to transform their social worlds. Consequently, literacy and literacy learning are cast as political acts, artistic events, and qualitative ways of knowing.

In order for this critical view of literacy and literacy learning to take place, learning must become critical learning, and pedagogy must become critical pedagogy. To do that, a fundamental redefinition of the relationship between teachers and students must take place. This redefinition must take into account the notions of resistance, power, ownership, engagement, and practical action within the educational process so that the teacher-student relationship can be viewed in reciprocal rather than hierarchial terms.

Finally, how we define what literacy is, and how we describe the ways literacy is learned needs to be viewed in the context of what literacy is for. Only in this way can literacy and literacy learning becomes the means for individual and collective empowerment - an empowerment that enables people to change their social worlds.

8.6

# Progress and Promise in Teacher Education
# The Agenda For Research and Development in Education Personnel Development

by

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This paper will offer a framework for thinking about an agenda for research and development in education personnel development on a global scale. The paper consists of three sections.

- The significance of the international context,
- The alternative purposes of the agenda, and,
- Some possible paradigms for defining inquiry

## The International Context

A research agenda for an international council should reflect some measure of international distinctiveness while at the same time reflecting some measure of restraint. The latter is necessary to prevent the research agenda from becoming a catalogue of hopes, an unfocused array of projects or hopes for them.

The two qualities, distinctiveness and restraint, are functions of present or potential policy guidelines which are themselves important considerations for discussion on the agenda. A way of focusing on distinctiveness is for the International Council on Education for Teaching (ICET) to accept a primary role as an intermediary willing to initiate or to foster the functions of synthesis for the emerging lines of international inquiry involving education for teaching.

The recently published International Encyclopedia on Educational Research and Studies (Pergammon Press, 1985) contains more than 200 entries and over 1 million words on teacher education. There is much to consider, to synthesize and to occupy the agenda.

## The Purpose of the Agenda

The purpose of research and development is to alter the agenda of a discipline or a field of study. The purpose of a research and development agenda is to provide a rich basis for discussion, deliberation and decision about these alterations. Occasionally it may be for the purposes of re-opening debates which are thought to have been closed.

But one cannot go on begging the question of whose agenda it is. Among the most important questions surrounding any research problem is, whose problem is it? If the problem cannot be described with a possessive pronoun and also accepted with one, then it may be irrelevant. Likewise with a research agenda, if it is not in some way possessed, it may be either unassignable or irrelevant.

This paper assumes that the research agenda belongs to the convened meetings of ICET. It also assumes that the main purpose of its research agenda is to provide forums for challenging extant theories, giving encouragement to the development of new paradigms and for seeking new explanations for the consistencies observed in the real or the contrived world. The research agenda has as its purpose, accordingly, the stimulation of thought, illumination of mutual interests, and interaction with peers toward the goal of being informed by inquiry.

## Some Possible Paradigms for Defining Inquiry

In its international dimension, education for teaching follows certain conventions of inclusion or exclusion, domination or subordination, and/or centralization or decentralization. These are not always paradigms for defining inquiry, occasionally, they are approaches to bureaucratic abuse of power. But they are related to the constructs or paradigms for defining inquiry. These constructs or paradigms are the large chunks or the large themes which should be on the agenda of ICET. They will be enumerated as follows:

### 1. Attributes Versus Processes

The familiar dichotomy between attributes and processes has been described in the name of ICET. The Council is labeled as education for teaching and not as education of teachers. The difference is enormous and yet easily missed. Most mature scholars know how little was learned about education when the focus of study was on teachers rather than on teaching. And it should be no surprise that teachers oppose the idea of merit pay. They know that it will be based on teacher attributes and not on teaching processes. The attribute/process construct is a very appropriate inclusion on the agenda. It is a major issue on the scene of education.

### 2. The Sequencing Question

The sequencing of preparatory experiences or the justification for sequencing is either an unanswered question or an unquestioned answer in education for teaching. In either case it belongs on the research agenda. What should be a prerequisite for education for teaching? Why? These questions continue to go unanswered.

In America the liberal arts have a derived rather than a literal meaning. They are never defined in terms of their capacity to liberate or, conversely, to enslave. They are regarded as having intrinsic merit as though they were linked with some mystique of undefinable wisdom. Their position as a prerequisite to much that is included in education for teaching is partly convention and partly ideology. It is not informed by careful scholarship nor inquiry.

### 3. Organizational Questions

In education for teaching, it is important to make the operating system an inquiring system. This means that it becomes far more important to make careful and precise observations of ongoing educational processes than it is to formalize the process and to run the risk of distorting the observations.

It is typical to attempt to learn from the operating system in such exercises as student teaching internships, novices learning from a master teacher and in apprenticeships. Yet it is possible to go much further in making the operating system a basis for an inquiring system. As a basis for research, the operating system of education, formal and informal, can be as rich a resource as is the solar system for astronomers. First, however, it must find its way, through the minds of creative inquirers, on to the agenda.

4. The Standards/Qualifications Question

In every culture, a discussion must be made about when someone is qualified to teach the magic of the tribe to the young. Important here is both the magic and the nature of the tribe.

This, quite obviously, is the question of certification, licensure, and qualification. This, like the question of sequencing, is highly influenced by convention as well as supply and demand of teachers. Yet it is among the most common characteristics of the teaching profession. On the agenda of meetings of ICET, it is perhaps no more than a descriptive study but it is, nevertheless, the measure of a common thread.

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Except for a reference to a rather massive collection of scholarly work, the new international encyclopedia, this paper contains no references to specific literature. It addresses the topics and themes which would make participation in ICET an exciting adventure. The Council will prosper in proportion to its willingness to be a votary of freedom, candor and independence for any instrumentality engaged in education for teaching.

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# 8·7 STUDENT APATHY: THE PROTECTION OF SELF-WORTH

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Student apathy is a common as chalk dust in many school classrooms in the United States. Unfortunately, it is more lethal. Last year in the city of Chicago, for example, nearly 40 per cent of the year nine students completed the term with failures in two or more courses (units). Paradoxically, the educational procedures that have contributed to this apathy have also produced many hardworking, competent and intellectually curious students, often working side by side with the noninvolved. In short, schools are giving us winners as well as losers, and if we hope to increase the former by reducing the latter, we need to understand the motivational factors that have contributed to this dichotomy.

While many causes for this problem have been offered, Self-Worth Theory (Covington, 1984) proposes that large numbers of students choose apathy as a defence strategy when they experience a threat to their dignity and competence. In most schools the threat comes from the educational system's almost exclusive reliance on norm-referenced evaluation procedures. These procedures inadvertantly forced many students to choose between rejecting school or rejecting their sense of self-worth.

While both ability and effort are necessary for school success, students have concluded that norm-referenced ability is the more important of the two. Furthermore, many slower students have discovered that they can avoid a sense of personal failure in the educational process by witholding effort on academic tasks. In short, they find it less painful to receive a failing grade for not doing an assignment than to expend effort completing the task only to result in a similar evaluation.

The presentation will discuss Self-Worth Theory, failure-avoidance behaviour, and the traditional educational practices that inadvertantly create a threat to the dignity and competence of students. The remainder of this paper will explore how the research supported instructional strategies of outcome based learning, individual goal-setting, attribution retraining, and cooperative learning groups serve to protect student self-worth and can thereby increase student effort on academic tasks.

## OUTCOME-BASED LEARNING

Outcome or mastery-based instructional systems replace norm-referenced standards with standards of ablsolute performance on clearly stated instructional objectives. By viewing some differences in student ability as differences in the amount of time required to master objectives, it may be possible for 95% of the student population to achieve success from reasonable effort (Bloom, 1976). With the exception of individual tutoring, it is difficult to imagine any other approach to instruction having more potential for reducing student apathy. Carroll (1963) proposed that students will succeed in learning a task to the extent that they are able or willing to spend the amount of time necessary. Since Piaget has clearly demonstrated qualitative differences in cognitive processing, we can assume that Carroll is referring to learning within each of Piaget's stages. He defined time on task not as elapsed time, but rather the amount of time the student spent actually engaged with the learning process. Inplicit in his formulation was the assumption that although students *do* vary in ability, *most* can conceivably attain mastery of all the school's curriculum. Research by Bloom offers support for Carroll's hypothesis. His data shows that faster students initially learn from 5 to 7 times quicker than slower students (Bloom, 1976). However, given enough time on task and quality instruction, Bloom reports that, "The typical results of mastery learning studies in the schools is that about 80% of students reach the same final criteria of achievement (usually A or B+) as approximately the top 20% of the class under control group instruction." (Bloom, 1981, p.134)

In a review of 40 studies of student outcomes under mastery and nonmastery approaches to instruction, Block (1980) found that mastery students learn more *effectively* and more *efficiently* than their nonmastery counterparts. Measuring learning in terms of student achievement and retention, mastery students almost always learn more, and several times faster than nonmastery students. In regard to the effects of mastery learning on student apathy, Block reported that mastery taught students liked learning, their teaching, and themselves better than their nonmastery counterparts. These students virtually always responed more positively that nonmastery students on measures of subject matter interest, attitude toward the subject matter, self-concept (academic as well as general), academic self-confidence, and attitudes toward the instruction (Block, 1980).

A review of 97 research studies that compared achievement of mastery and nonmastery students was conducted by Chandler (1982). While his analysis supported Block's conclusions, he also discovered that if a student is at the 50th percentile in a nonmastery group he or she could expect to achieve at the level of the 80th percentile using the mastery approach.

Research by Covington (1984) has demonstrated that the apparently simple procedure of setting criterion-referenced grading standards and then allowing students to retake parallel forms of classroom tests, without penalty, can help increase student motivation. It is necessary, however, that increases in achievement be followed by changes in the traditional norm-referenced grade distribution.

## ATTRIBUTION RETRAINING

Attribution Theory (Weiner 1980) proposes that there are usually four causes which individuals attribute to be the reason for success or failure experiences: ability, effort, task difficulty and luck. These elements can be classified on three dimensions. First, locus of control, or the degree to which the cause is inherent in the person or the result of external events. Ability and effort are considered internal, whereas task difficulty and luck are external. The second dimension deals the stability of the attribute over time. Ability and task difficulty are considered stable with effort and luck being considered unstable. The third dimension concerns controllability with effort being the only attribute within a person's personal control.

Failure-avoiding students are largely unresponsive to success experiences since the tend to ascribe their occasional successes to external factors. Through attribution retraining most of these students can be helped to change their view of the causes for failure from the uncontrollable factors of lack of ability, luck and task difficulty, to effort, the only controllable attribute. Research on attribution retraining has demonstrated that by helping students to change their maladaptive attributional perceptions of success and failure, student motivation, involvement, and achievement can be improved. See Raffini (1988) and Licht (1983) for a review of this research.

## INDIVIDUAL GOAL-SETTING

If it is the teacher's goal is to help students discover that reasonable effort can lead to success, then it becomes necessary to determine how students define success. Classic research by Hoppe (Barker, 1942) found that success and failure experiences were often independent of actual achievement. Rather, they were determined by the goals and expectations of the person at the time of the behaviour. It seems that when individuals are free to establish their own goals, their level of aspiration operates as a type of governing mechanism, being raised or lowered relative to performance. This serves to allow all individuals, regardless of ability, the opportunity for experiencing success.

In school, external, competitive standards inadvertently produces a breakdown of the protective aspects of the level of aspiration. There are, however, many ways of applying goal-setting structures to traditionally competitive procedures. See Raffini (1988) for a review of these approaches. Giving students choices when ever possible is a clear and simple way for teachers to encourage individual goal-setting from students. The choices may range from where to put one's name on assignments, to asking students questions like, "How many can you finish by tomorrow?" When faced with choices, students must make a commitment; it's this commitment that can lead to responsible, goal-directed behaviour.

## COOPERATIVE LEARNING

A fourth strategy for inviting apathetic students back to the learning process is through the use of cooperative learning activities. The term cooperative learning refers to a variety of specific instructional methods in which students of different achievement levels work together in groups of from 2 to 5 students. The systematic application of certain cooperative strategies have been found to increase student achievement, self concept and attitude toward school (Johnson & Johnson, 1987; Slavin, 1987). Slavin's research has established that two conditions are necessary for cooperative learning to have substantial impact. First, theremust be a clearly defined group goal for students to work toward, and second reaching this goal must depend on the individual learning of all group members. Simply putting students into mixed ability groups and encouraging them to work together are not enough. Space does not permit further analysis.

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# Attitude Scales: A Measurement to Determine Attitudes Toward School and Beginning Reading

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## Introduction

The attitude inventory scales described in this paper were developed as an outgrowth from an earlier collaborative project prepared in England (Merritt and Horodezky, 1983). The major objective was to devise a practical means of enabling and encouraging parents in culturally and/or economically disadvantaged areas to become more actively involved in the educational processes of their children during the preprimary and early primary years. The project sought to involve parents and teachers in a closer working relationship together with helping teachers to review their own classroom practices in order to identify those parts of the educational process that parents needed to understand. The scales were designed to serve as a "first step" in initiating an interactive network between educators and disadvantaged families in a quest to promote "literacy readiness" for school.

## Rationale

For centuries educators have sought to expand their knowledge of preschool experiences which foster learning. As early as 1657, for example, Comenius proposed that a Mothers' school be established in every home for every child during the first six years of life. Recently, research by Beveridge and Jerrams (1981), Tizard, Schofield and Hewison (1982), Burgess (1982), and Becker (1985), among others, have shown that cooperation between schools and parents frequently leads to higher achievement in reading.

Although there has been a good deal of attention given in the literature to the relationship between attitude and achievement in reading, relatively few investigations have focused on the primary and pre-primary levels. Redelheim (1976), constructed a multidimensional test of reading attitudes for children in grades (K-2). Four dimensions of reading included: instructional, school recreational, home recreational and outdoor recreational. Children responded to photographs; responses were scored on a three point scale. Similarly, Saracho (1986), reported the construction of a 12-item scale designed to measure preprimary children's attitudes toward reading activities in school, the library, outside the school and reading in general. Both authors reported adequate levels of reliability, including internal consistency and short-term retest). In addition some evidence of content and construct validity was presented.

Neither of the studies cited above attempted to assess the broader aspects of reading attitudes, namely the question of parent child interaction as it relates to attitudes toward learning to read and beginning school. The scales described herein were thus designed to measure these aspects as well as to identify at an early age, attitudes toward schooling in more general terms.

## Method

### Sample

Subjects for the study consisted of 165 preprimary and primary children (ages 3.5 to 8.5), their parent(s) and classroom teachers. Two innercity London, primary schools located within close proximity of one another were selected for the study because of their similar low socio-economic, multi ethnic, social priority, working class population. Approximately one third were native born (United Kingdom), one third Carribean born and one third of mixed Asian and African origins, with a small number of Continental Europeans.

### Instrumentation

The two sets of scales, namely the primary and preprimary, utilized a LIKERT type rating scale because of its accuracy and ease of scoring. Three large hand drawn "moon-like" faces were arranged on a "9 X 12" card and placed before the child. Subjects were directed to select the face (happy, worried, or sad) which most aptly described their feelings in answer to the twenty-one test items. The test required no reading on the part of the child. Answers ranged from positive (3 points) to most negative (1 point). The test took 12 to 15 minutes to administer. Parent scales similarly consisted of 20 items which were read orally to each subject. Answers were recorded by the examiner utilizing a LIKERT like 3-point rating scale (agree, undecided or disagree). Testing time ranged from 10 to 12 minutes.

### Test Items

Preprimary and primary scale items were similar, with the exception of wording which was adjusted to meet the needs of younger children. Questions focused on behaviors, feelings and expectations as they related to attitudes toward learning to read and/or begin school. Included were some of the following: child teacher expectations, child parent interaction in reading situations; in listening and questioning, beginning school expectations, and parental interest in reading.

Parental scales closely paralled items in primary scales. Examples included: parent teacher interaction, home environment and reading listening and speaking to the child, school participation, educational expectations and knowledge of child's school subjects.

### Content Validity

Items were initially formulated based on the literature and on practical experience in working with disadvantaged children. The first version of the scales was critically assessed by conferring with a number of colleague experts who examined each item and the instrument as a whole. Their suggestions were incorporated into the pilot version of the scales.

### Pilot Testing and Revisions

The scales were administered to 15 children ranging in age from 3 to 7, together with their parent(s). The school utilized was located in Coventry, England. Revisions included: 1) altering wording to suit British Children; 2) developing comprehensive data forms for parent and child; 3) including an additional test item to the children's scales.

### Reliability

The attitude scales were administered to 165 subjects (92 primary, 73 preprimary). Sixty-six children in one school were re-tested after a period of three weeks. These students thus served as subjects for estimating test-retest reliability (i.e. stability of test scores).

### Results and Discussion

On the average, scores indicated that the overall attitude toward school and beginning reading was reasonably positive. That is, the means ranged from a low of 51.06 for the preprimary pre-test scores to a high of 54.4 for the primary pre-test scores; the maximum score being 6.3.

Despite the tendency toward high scores, there was evidence of useful information in these data. The standard deviation which ranged from 5.14 to 7.6, indicated that there was in fact sufficient variability, perhaps reflecting a range of attitude.

The internal consistency reliability estimates ranged from .59 to .79. These figures may appear to be low, however it must be remembered that the inventory was constructed to reflect a somewhat broader range of attitude than had generally been reported in the literature. Further, at this stage of the study it was not considered appropriate to separate the 21 item scale into a very short subscale because of the well-know problems of reliability.

A very positive finding was reflected in the test re-test coefficients of .78 in the preprimary group and .73 in the primary.

It appears that test scores are reasonably stable even in the younger age group over a three-week period.

Examination of the distribution of scores for each item reveals a variety of response which merits close attention on the part of the classroom teacher. Items inquiring about the child's perception of how their parents feel about school and reading seem to be particularly useful. For example, 46.7 per cent of the 92 primary subjects stated that their parents would feel "bad or sad" about reading instead of watching television.

Future Analysis and Research Plans.

Stage two in the research plan will explore parent teacher responses as they relate to the child's perceptions. Future directions will include some cross cultural replication, and, validation and investigations of construct validity of the scales.

In conclusion, it is hoped that through early intervention with the use of the scales, educators might well serve to "bridge the gap" between school and home, crucial for success during the child's early years

> ...learning to read in the early stages like
> anything else a child has come to know, is an
> approximation of adult behavior ...
> (p. 24 MEEK 1982).

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## 9.1 DEMOCRATIC PARTICIPATION IN THE CLASSROOM: STUDENT PREFERENCES

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In a previous issue of SET (1983) a report was produced on those teacher disciplinary practices which were preferred by Year 9 students in Melbourne state schools. Since that time the research programme has been expanded to include additional schools in Melbourne (1987), Queensland, the United States (1985), Norway (1982) and more recently Auckland, New Zealand, (1987). In addition, the opinions of local parents and teachers as well as upper primary school students have been surveyed.

While the questionnaire employed in the studies has been slightly modified to take account of national differences, particular target groups and theoretical positions it remains essentially similar to that described in the earlier issue of SET. In essence it asks students to indicate the extent to which they agree or disagree that a list of statements, such as the following, firstly described a particular teacher's behaviour and secondly, represented a disciplinary technique which students preferred.

*Walks out of class when most of the class misbehaves

SA A D SD

*Loses his or her temper when telling off students

SA A D SD

*Encourages students when they do the right thing

SA A D SD

As well, several studies involving approximately 1000 students in all investigated how students felt when those who misbehaved were disciplined by the teacher. Specifically, students indicated the extent to which they were

. scared of the teacher

. disliked or lost respect for the teacher

. felt sorry for the student disciplined by the teacher

. distracted from their school work.

As a result of an analysis of the questionnaires from all of our relevant studies to date of Year 9 students both within Australia and overseas we are now in a position to have considerable confidence in answering the following questions -

1. What do teachers do to control misbehaviour?

2. How do students feel when teachers do these things?

3. What would students like teachers to do when controlling them?

Let's look at the answers to these questions in turn with a view to compiling a check list of student preferences which has the potential of contributing to an informed classroom management programme.

## Q.1 WHAT DO TEACHERS DO TO CONTROL MISBEHAVIOUR?

To answer this question we looked at the results of 3 studies which asked students to describe their teacher's behaviour. The detailed description of teachers' behaviour will be provided in the presentation. In general,however, the way teachers control misbehaviour in classrooms is by acting logically and trying to make the punishment fit the 'crime'. They focus on the misbehaving students, using a combination of techniques which range from hints to quite severe punishments. While the problem behaviour is discussed with students, it is often done in an angry fashion. Finally, teachers try to be fully in charge without getting help from the students or parents.

## Q. 2. WHAT STUDENTS WOULD LIKE TEACHERS TO DO

To answer this question we asked over 5,000 students what their teachers should do. From their answers we were able to work out what the students thought were the best things for their teachers to do ... and there were 17 of them. These will be detailed in the presentation.

Nevertheless, in summary, students ideally would like a classroom discipline to be a co-operative effort involving themselves and the teacher.

However, students are quite prepared for a teacher to be totally in charge as long as the teacher utilizes a number of specific techniques such as clarification of rules, controlling anger, applying logical reactions to misbehaviour, and providing students a 'right of reply'. As mentioned above details of these will be provided during the presentation.

Having established what teachers do to control classes and what students would like them to do, we moved on to see what impact the teacher's behaviour was having on students.

## Q.3 HOW DO STUDENTS FEEL WHEN TEACHERS DO WHAT THEY DO

Approximately 1,000 students answered a questionnaire which asked the following question. When students misbehave and get disciplined by the teacher, how does it make you feel? It then listed 25 ways students might feel and asked if they -

- almost never felt this way

- sometimes felt this way

- often felt this way

Their answers fell into 4 groups which told us how much they

. were scared of the teacher

. disliked or lost respect for the teacher

. felt sorry for the misbehaving student who was disciplined by the teacher

. were distracted from their school work.

Generally speaking

1. Only 20% of students were more than sometimes scared when the teacher disciplined misbehaving students.

2. about 20% felt sorry for the misbehaving student.

3. 35% more than sometimes found it difficult to concentrate on their work.

4. 42% thought less of the teacher.

So much for the results. No doubt you have already formed an opinion of their relevance to the way in which you work with students in the classroom. However, you might be interested in what the over-all findings mean to us.

On reflection we believe that two major generalisations are implicit in the findings, namely:

1. Students prefer the classroom to be a place where discipline is a co-operative affair involving themselves and the teacher in developing and implementing a code of behaviour to reduce the occurrence of actions which distract teachers from teaching and students from learning.

2. However while students prefer co-operative approaches they are quite prepared for the teacher to be totally in-charge as long as their preferences are kept in mind and practised.

It is quite apparent that there is potential conflict in these findings. In terms of student involvement the first generalisation is consistent with the pragmatic view that encouraging students to participate in the determination of their education "generally serves to develop a commitment on their part to learning" (Gutmann, 1987) and has been found to be characteristic of more successful than less successful schools (Ramsay et al. 1987).

The official student welfare and disciplinary policy of Victoria (1983) - The Australian State in which most of our research has been conducted - subscribed unambiguously to the participating model. It refers to apportioning equal status to all members of the school community, mutual respect for the rights and feelings of others, the achievement of co-operation of all participants in seeking jointly determined decisions and so on. Similarly, the Tasmanian Education Department (Dunn, 1986) advocates greater involvement of students in decision making on the grounds that it results in increased commitment and fewer disciplinary problems.

Moreover, it is also consistent with those principles of justice which assume that power in the school - or in any institutional setting for that matter - should be subject to democratic exercise and control. In short, what we are talking about here is participatory democracy involving all members of the school community. As described by Patricia White (1983) participation for students, is a critical part of their political education as it enables them to

(i) develop attitudes towards power authorities and working with others

(ii) the ability and social confidence to work as a member of in-school and out-of-school groups

(iii) acquire standards against which authority structures in the community can be measured.

However, in the light of student preference for power sharing to be a co-operative enterprise involving themselves and teachers how does this effect the professional autonomy of teachers? In terms of what has been said above this is not an easy problem to resolve. On the one hand emphasising teacher autonomy may represent a repression of student preferences and rights. On the other hand adopting a position of political equality may subvert the autonomy and professional competence of teachers.

Unfortunately, there is little critical empirical evidence concerning the educational and political results of democratic approaches. In the relative absence of such material it would seem reasonable that as long as one subscribes to the principles of democratic decision making, participatory methods should be cultivated but on the clear understanding that the buck stops with the teacher on matters relating to the final determination of the content of the curriculum and the control of any disruptive action which might jeopardise the rights which students have in the schooling process provided it is not in marked conflict with the second of the student preferences.

# 9.2 THE MORAL AND INTELLECTUAL RESPONSIBILITY OF TEACHERS

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The theory and practice of liberal education has continuously assimilated the Platonic tradition to changing contemporary conditions. Three of the central themes underlying this tradition are: (i) that real education, as distinct from socialisation, vocational training etc, has to do with cognitive struggle with particular forms of worthwhile content (as in 'coming to know the best that has been thought and said in the world'): (ii) that not everybody is equipped for this struggle with enlightening content, ergo real education is for an intellectual elite: and (iii) that educated people are to direct their wisdom into the just rule and guardianship of the state (the small number who best master the program, supposedly the most intellectually able, thus rightfully achieve contingent elite status by being made members of the ruling class, with schooling fairly and equitably determining class location).

In the nineteenth century liberal education theorists had to come to terms with egalitarian movements and concrete proposals to make schools (and perhaps education, and positions of power) available to all; but elitism survived by actually appropriating the egalitarian push. Serious hopes of offering real education (and opportunity) to everyone through schooling were countered by concerns with the wisdom of such an enterprise, given human nature and differing human abilities, as well as finding and deploying the resources required for actually bringing such a thing about. It was asked whether the attempt to universalise schooling might do little more than ruin things for those capable of benefiting in the first place, and consequently for society as a whole. The issue of providing universal liberating education became reduced in to the matter of compulsory schooling taking on the twin roles of providing high level intellectual fare for the able, and basic instruction and socialisation for the rest. Discourse thus shifted back from the concern to provide universal liberal education to a concern to introduce 'the best that has been thought and said in the world' to as many of those who could benefit from it, within a context of compulsory schooling which had to accommodate the entire youth population, and which had multiple social functions to perform.

Liberal educational theory remains dominated by the above themes. Educative activities are associated with particular cognitive content and given special status in schools. The educated person is identified as the most able who best assimilates and masters what schools offer. And the educated are classed as best equipped to perform 'the most prized jobs', to occupy privileged social positions; to be entitled to form opinions and have them respected - or purely and simply, to rule - ostensibly by merit. Conversely, those not intellectually gifted and/or motivated towards struggling with the liberal curriculum, and who fail to benefit from the school's essential values and content, receive instrumental training, socialisation and basic instruction, and become the modern artisans of the contemporary Republic - namely the working class in industrial capitalist society.

## RADICAL REACTIONS

The liberal tradition accepts a particular relationship between success at school and class location. Recent arguments have claimed that schooling and the liberal curriculum are class interest serving; and that the 'essence' of schooling is reinforcing and reproducing the class relations of production. Schooling, in transmitting 'high culture' or 'the best that has been thought and said in the world', was not 'educating' but engaging in intellectual imperialism which perpetuated elements of ruling class culture and oppression unconnected and irrelevant to the real existential needs of the majority of the populace; as well as reinforcing existing social and class relations. Schools (and teachers), many argued, should focus on the real needs and interests of the working class and/or the oppressed, and should engage in the task of social reconstruction. Three main themes developed.

First; concentration on the form of schooling itself indicated that the very experience of schooling was experience of class relations, work relations, and dominance-subordinance relations; and that while schooling retained its existing form content counted for little (correspondence principle). A second reaction looked at the content of the traditional liberal curriculum, and declared it to be intellectual imperialism perpetuating ruling class culture, interests, concerns, and oppression, which, in serving ruling class interests devalued knowledge produced by and relevant to subordinated oppressed minority groups (such as women, blacks, the working class). The school curriculum thus helped to support, legitimate and sustain existing patterns of power, and both failed to modify and convert the working class while at the same time told them where they stood in the world - namely that they were dumb, deprived and inferior. From this position some then argued that oppressed groups had to reject rather than try to assimilate what is taught in school, including print literacy. In the place of school (ruling class) knowledge there had to be a curriculum (tied in with a whole changed schooling experience) rooted in working class culture, propagating working class knowledge, and based on working class needs. The third reaction urged the oppressed not to reject liberal curricula but rather to appropriate them to their own needs: literacy, along with the study of great literature, music, history, mathematics and science, could be as valuable to the cause of the workers etc. as they were to the bourgeiosie.

More recently a counter-reaction has developed to the above views; namely that teachers are not well placed to understand working class experience or culture; do not necessarily know what is best for the working classes; and are hardly by their experience and training bearers of knowledge, values and programs of action superior to that borne by the working class. Teachers themselves have much to learn, and should engage in cultural interaction and exchange to find common ground on which to work, rather than impose what they think working class kids really need. (The charge of intellectual imperialism is thus levelled at well meaning left-inclined academic potential saviours of the working class). Further contemporary debate suggests that deliberate intervention towards social and political reconstruction is beyond the province of teachers. I am as unhappy with most of the above as I am with the basic Platonic position.

## TOWARDS A POSITIVE STATEMENT

It is the moral and intellectual responsibility of teachers to learn, guard, preserve, foster and transmit the most valuable manifestations of human achievement and capability; and at the same time to engage in activity directed towards reconstructing society along rational socialist lines. These two centres of engagement are not incompatible. This is not the place to argue for socialist reconstruction: but I shall show that teachers armed with 'the best that has been thought and said in the world' are neither enemies of the revolution nor passive feelers for touchstones: rather they are well placed to lead in bringing about desirable social reconstruction. I turn first to the aims of a liberating curriculum.

There are human capabilities, ways of thinking, forms of enquiry, and bodies of knowledge which, although having been utilised and legitimated in past and present societies for the perpetuation of ruling class interests, are important to know, do, practice, preserve and pass on because they constitute the means for dealing with practical and theoretical problems pertinent to any social organisation. It is simply the two-edged sword issue: that which serves ruling class interests can also serve the interests of the oppressed. History, literature, science, mathematics etc. per se are not the enemies of the oppressed: recontextualised they can be the driving force as well as the tools for social reconstruction based on equity and the continued manifestation of the highest of human qualities and endeavours.

The programatic content of the liberal arts curriculum is appropriate to fostering human excellences, moral understanding and rational equitable social living. The problem in basing schooling for all, and thus for the working class, on such a curriculum is one of orientation and accessibility. Content has to be placed and reoriented, not rejected, within a slightly changed medium, and modified in detail towards deliberately presenting a significantly altered message. As for accessibility schooling has to be made the 'normal' 'natural' means of learning for the working class, who have to get more of it in a form suited to their needs (and the needs of rational social reconstruction).

The aim is not to provide recontextualised liberal studies so that the working class might do better under the existing economic and social system; but rather so that they might become better informed, more receptive, and capable of more fully understanding human existence so as to attain a position to control it for the benefit of all. Undertaking such an enterprise would require 'turning a stream of fresh and free thought upon our stock notions and habits' (Arnold), or seeing the world from a wider perspective than the viewpoints dictated by either the needs of a ruling class or by 'working class culture'. A real liberating education would liberate the oppressed from their intellectual and political contexts simultaneously.

## ON THE ROLE AND PLACE OF TEACHERS

There may be things that people 'naturally' come to, like ways of solving problems central to their existence, but there are countless things that are unlikely to be come upon or taken up 'naturally', e.g. the music of Madonna and Beethoven. Both are currently popular, but without their publicity machines certainly Madonna and possibly Beethoven could be largely unknown today. Madonna's machine pushes ephemeral mediocrity for financial gain: since Beethoven's exceptional gifts are not immediately obvious to the young he too needs a machine - which promotes genius for the joy, beauty and quality it adds to human life. If for no other reason, we need teachers to combat Madonna's machine and to act as Beethoven's. (I am not postulating teachers as a class of detached disinterested intelligensia operating within society: what I say should be seen in the light of my arguments in other places.)

Four characteristics of the function of teaching, taken together, make teachers uniquely placed to bring about the social (and intellectual/ moral) reconstruction discussed above. First; teaching entails a moral concern for human betterment, and an objective disinterested concern to combat the commonplace. Second; teaching entails an intellectual concern with the transmission and advancement of knowledge; and teachers are comparatively well informed and professionally committed to such sharing and transmission. Third; in their endeavour of forming consciousness, teachers, unlike similar groups, including those with moral and intellectual interests, engage in a disinterested and non-commercial enterprise. Teachers, virtually uniquely, engage in consciousness formation for the benefit of the pupil, and for society; but not for themselves or specific commercial or sectarian interests. Fourth; teachers are not objectively committed to or dependent on capitalism for their survival as an occupational group.

In seeking a better, fairer, more rationally constructed world populated by people displaying moral, intellectual and social excellences, we might best turn to teachers to help bring this about: conversely teachers, as the disinterested guardians and gate-keepers of the best of human knowledge and values, should themselves recognise and accept this moral and intellectual responsibility. In a world where ideological apparatuses work with extreme sophistication in forming consciousness, and in which commercial interests are able to exert enormous influence over thought and values, people neither come naturally to what is worthwhile nor choose freely and rationally among options. The deliberate intervention of teachers in pupils' futures and social reconstruction is desirable. Teachers should not propagate the commonplace ruling at any particular moment; nor merely lay out alternatives so that pupils might choose freely and autonomously; and they should replace *laissez-faire* attitudes with interventionism. The agency of enlightened and morally concerned teachers is central to the enterprise of rational social reconstruction based on the promotion of human excellences: and teachers, lacking an objective interest in the continuation of capitalism, should be well able to adapt schooling and a liberating curriculum for those oppressed groups that do not have an established history of knowing how to benefit from them.

## 9.3 QUALITY TEACHERS FOR THE TWENTY-FIRST CENTURY

**Neville H. Fry**

### 1. PROJECT 21

During 1985 and 1986, the Queensland Board of Teacher Education undertook a major review of teacher education and registration in Queensland. The Board felt that, as we move towards the beginning of the 21st century, it was timely for it to consider the changing social and educational contexts for Queensland schools; to suggest guidelines for the future development of teacher education in Queensland to enable teachers to gain the education, experience and competencies needed to fulfil their professional roles; and to review teacher registration policies to ensure that the system of registration remained attuned to the needs of the society, the schools and the teaching profession.

A full report of the review was published in 1987 under the title Project 21: Teachers for the Twenty-First Century. The Report provides an analysis of social and educational trends emerging in the late 1980s and the implications of such trends for the roles and competencies expected of teachers who will be teaching in the later years of this century and into the early years of the next. These considerations lead to recommendations for the recruitment and selection of entrants to teacher education, for the professional preparation and registration of teachers, and for their continuing professional development. Further recommendations relate to teacher educators and their institutions and to review processes in teacher education.

Underlying the recommendations of the Report are a number of guiding principles or recurring themes. Perhaps the most pervasive of these are the need for the teaching profession to achieve full professional status, and the need for close collaboration among employing authorities, tertiary education institutions and the teaching profession in all phases of teacher education.

### 2. THE NEED FOR FULL PROFESSIONAL STATUS FOR TEACHING

Many recent reports from the United Kingdom and the United States as well as from Commonwealth and State bodies in Australia have emphasised the crucial importance of education in the present era of rapid social and technological change. In urging improvement in the quality of education, most have also acknowledged the heavy dependence of educational outcomes on the quality of the teaching service. The Quality of Education Review Committee in Australia (1985) states, for example:

> 'Improved outcomes from schooling are dependent on well educated, adaptive and innovative teachers who must be able to provide high quality schooling and to do so in the face of a changing economic, social and cultural framework ... It is this dependence on teachers for educational outcomes that brings sharply into focus the need for measures to improve the quality of teachers and teaching.' (p. 116)

In its Project 21 Report, the Queensland Board of Teacher Education similarly concludes from its analysis of social and educational trends that:

> 'These considerations highlight the increasingly important and complex role teachers are expected to play in the community and the need to staff our schools with teachers of the highest quality.' (p. xvii)

At one level it is argued that an improvement in the status of teaching as a profession is necessary in order to attract a higher calibre of applicants into teaching. The Quality of Education Review Committee (1985) comments:

> 'The relative status of the profession and employment prospects in it are important determinants of who come forward as prospective teachers. ... Nowadays, future employment prospects, prospective financial rewards and the perceived status of the profession appear to be affecting the choice of teaching as a career.' (p. 130)

An important aspect of the perceived attractiveness of teaching as a career is the environment in which teachers work - an environment which is observed at first hand by those from whom the teachers of the future will be drawn. As the Holmes Group (1986) in America observes:

> 'Reform advocates have never fully appreciated the fact that the problems of teacher education mirror society's failure to treat teaching as a profession. If the rewards, career patterns, working conditions and professional responsibilities of teachers reflect a second-class occupation, then candidates for teaching and teacher education will tend to follow those expectations.'

The Carnegie Forum (1985) puts it more bluntly:

> 'Increasing pay will not work if teachers continue to be treated as dummies, as people who must be told what to do at every step. ... The education policies now in place overwhelmingly imply a view of the teacher as a blue collar worker. As long as this remains true, it will be very hard to attract large numbers of people to teaching who have the intellect and drive necessary to be successful in the professions, and even harder to keep them in the teaching force.'

Apart from its effect on recruitment into teaching as a career, the failure to treat teachers as professionals militates against attempts to improve the quality of teaching. Summarising the results of two decades of research on effective teaching, Linda Darling-Hammond of the Rand Corporation (1985) says:

> 'These studies have made it clear that professional judgment is a prerequisite for effective teaching, because unless students are treated according to their particular needs, they will be mistreated. Standardised practice is, in effect, malpractice. Unless we prepare teachers to responsibly exercise professional judgment, and then allow them to do so, we will have little hope of improving educational quality.' (p. 212)

The view adopted by the Board of Teacher Education in Project 21 of the teaching as a reflective critical process is well expressed by Brophy and Evertson (1976):

> 'Effective teaching is not simply a matter of implementing a small number of basic teaching skills. Instead, effective teaching requires the ability to implement a very large number of diagnostic, instructional, managerial and therapeutic skills, tailoring behaviour in specific contexts and specific situations to the specific needs of the moment.' (p. 139)

and by Clark and Peterson (1985):

> '... the research shows that ... the image of a teacher as a reflective professional ... is not far-fetched. Teachers do plan in a rich variety of ways, and these plans have real consequences in the

> classroom. Teachers do have thoughts and make decisions frequently (one every two minutes) during interactive teaching. Teachers do have theories and belief systems that influence their perceptions, plans and actions. ... teaching is a complex and cognitively demanding process.' (pp. 292-293)

To these perspectives on the role of the individual teacher in interaction with students, the Board would add its view of 'the staff of a school as a team of professionals working together to provide educational services to their clients within the community served by their school' (p. 24).

This conception of teaching as a profession has clear implications for the recruitment and selection of entrants to teacher education which are reflected in the recommendations contained in Chapter 5 of the Board's *Project 21* Report. Not so readily accepted, however, has proved to be the Board's conclusion that initial teacher education should be conceptualised as a three-phase program which all entrants to teaching must complete in order to become full members of the profession. In the Board's view, the program should include:

> '(i) a pre-service course which provides an initial understanding of education, curriculum and pedagogy appropriate to the needs of a teacher at the beginning of his or her career;
>
> (ii) a period of guided induction into teaching and the early years of teaching experience;
>
> (iii) the subsequent completion of further formal studies which draw on experience to provide a level of knowledge and understanding of education which is essential for autonomous professional functioning, but which cannot be achieved at the pre-service stage.' (p. xix)

The Board would argue that the theoretical understandings and competencies required for teachers to function effectively as critical, reflective professionals cannot be gained without a period of experience of the realities of the teaching/learning situation. Such experience is the 'crucible' in which the essential fusion of theory and practice takes place. It is not until teachers can approach theory on the basis of real experience that they can gain real insights from it. In the words of *Project 21*:

> '... it is not until they can illuminate the theory with practice that they can gain mastery over the theory and incorporate it into their cognitive strategies as sure guides to practice. The teaching experience component of the pre-service phase cannot possibly be adequate for this purpose.' (p. 110)

The Board's view of teaching as a profession also provides the context for its consideration of questions about in-service teacher education in Chapter 7 of *Project 21*. The developmental program of initial teacher education lays the foundation for a career-long process of continuing personal and professional development. As professionals, teachers:

> '... may be expected to take responsibility for their own continuing professional development, both individually and as members of a school team, under the leadership of the principal and senior staff, as they seek to address emerging needs and challenges in their professional roles.' (p. 124)

## 3. COLLABORATION IN THE ENTERPRISE OF TEACHER EDUCATION

Given its view of the interdependence of education studies and teaching experience in schools in all phases of initial teacher education as well as in the continuing professional development of teachers, the Board sees as essential a genuine, close collaboration among employing authorities, teacher educators and the teaching profession in all aspects of teacher education and, indeed, in the ongoing development and improvement of schooling.

The Board's first two recommended guiding principles for initial teacher education in Project 21 are:

> '7.1 that initial teacher education be a joint responsibility of teacher education institutions, employing authorities and the profession.' (p. 81) and
>
> '7.2 that the planning and evaluation of initial teacher education programs be a collaborative process whereby staff members of higher education institutions consult with schools, teachers, teacher education students, employing authorities, teacher organisations, parents of school children, and members of the general community who are able to represent a range of community attitudes and interests.' (ibid)

The Board suggests, for example, that genuine collaboration between the parties involved would allow for 'a fundamental reconsideration of the goals of the teaching experience in the pre-service phase of teacher education and the determination of procedures that will enable goal achievement' (Recommendation 7.12.5, p. 101). Genuine collaboration might then lead to the establishment of new arrangements to create more effective teaching experiences for student teachers in schools which would be recognised as having a specialist role or an extensive involvement in pre-service teacher education and staffed accordingly (p. 99).

Again, the inextricable links between teacher professional development, school development and curriculum development mean that none of these enterprises can be successful unless integrated with the others and this can only be achieved through the collaboration among school authorities, teacher educators and the profession.

As Evans (1982) notes:

> 'Attempts at teacher development in a context that does not also change are likely to be, at best, unrewarding and, at worst, frustrating and disruptive. In the same way, attempts at curriculum change in the absence of both organisational development and teacher development are likely to lead to adoption but to no real implementation'. (p. 130)

In the Inaugural Yearbook of the South Pacific Association for Teacher Educators (1987), several writers emphasise the need for such collaboration. Perhaps, as Power (1987) suggests:

> '... the time has come for the organisations which represent educators as educators (rather than teachers as workers or employees of the state to hold a summit meeting on professional development. ... Hopefully a new consensus might emerge about what the profession can and should do immediately and in the longer term to attract and hold able and committed people, and to develop in them the qualities we know to be characteristic of good teachers.' (p. 153)

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# 9.4 3 + E + WHAT ?

## AN ANALYSIS OF B.ED. (PRIMARY) 4TH YEAR PROGRAMMES IN N.S.W.

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### Preamble

Since 1979, following H.E.B. guidelines, B.Ed. (Primary) programmes in N.S.W. have adopted the '3+E+1' model. These programmes are of four years duration with three years of pre-service study constituting the minimum pre-service requirement for teaching, an 'experience' component — originally stipulated to be one year of successful class teaching experience — and a final academic year undertaken in a part-time or external study mode over two years. Some qualitative differentiation between the first three years and the final (fourth) year is presupposed in the '3+E+1' model, with emphasis in the final year on notions such as 'rigorous theoretical study' drawing both from the 'E' component and from the first three years.

The design and implementation of the '3+E+1' model undoubtedly was influenced by recommendations from a series of Federal and State government reports on teacher education and development. Coulter and Ingvarson (1985) and MacLeod (1987) provide helpful summaries of these reports and recommendations. Unfortunately, by the time the '3+E+1' model came to be implemented, a major downturn in teacher-employment had occurred. Arising from difficulties experienced by Diploma students in gaining employment in order to satisfy the 'E' component, the original stipulation of '12 months' experience was reduced to 120 days, with the further possibility of students commencing their fourth year studies concurrently with the 'E' component.

### Method

Documentation for this analysis is based on submissions received by the N.S.W. Higher Education Board in or about 1980 from 11 of the 12 N.S.W. institutions involved in primary teacher education. The first batch of the '3+E+1' documents are referred to as '**Proposals**', while the Stage IV revisions to the programmes (after 5 years) are referred to as '**Reviews**'.

An initial descriptive summary of each institution's Proposal and Review documentation was written up and sent to the respective institutions for comment. Personal contact was also made in most instances to ascertain and clarify the accuracy of the initial descriptions. The fourth year of each institution's '3+E+1' model was then extracted for further analysis. Categories for analysis were not stipulated in advance. Nor were they formulated by conscious reference to N.S.W. H.E.B. guidelines. Rather, a range of categories was derived from each of the institution's rationales so as to ground the categories in the texts, thereby more closely reflecting the institution's own realities as stated in their documentation. Thirteen categories were deduced, most of which could be applied to all programmes. The categories with brief explanation are as follows:

1. **Accepts 'E':** A straightforward acknowledgment of the 'Experience' component in the rationale statement of either the Proposal or the Review.

2. **'E' in Prog.bldg:** Conscious or intentional recognition of the 'Experience' component as a factor relevant in the design of the 4th year programme.

3. **Change P to R:** An approximation as to the degree of programme change between each College's **Proposal** and its **Review.**

4. **4th-distinct:** A judgment about the entire 4th year as having distinctive emphases compared with the first three years of the programme.

5. **4th-linear:** A judgment about the 4th year programme as a 'continuation of' or 'extension of' the first three years.

6. **4th-culm:** A judgment about the 4th year progamme as a 'culmination' of the pre-service preparation.

7. **Theory/pract:** Recognition in the rationale of some kind of relationship between 'theory' and 'practice'.

8. **Project:** The programme requires students to complete a school-based curriculum project or piece of empirical research in or towards the final semester as a *sui generis* unit.

9. **Persnl.Growth:** The 4th year makes explicit reference to **personal** student growth and development as part of its aim or intentions.

10. **Prof.Growth:** The 4th year makes explicit reference to **professional** student growth and development as part of its aims or intentions.

11. **Ednl.Fndtns:** Reference is made to 'educational foundations' as part of the 4th year rationale.

12. **Appl.Curric:** Specific curriculum areas studied in the 4th year are seen as having a more distinctively 'applied' emphasis compared with the first 3 years.

13. **Self-directn:** Reference is made in the 4th year Rationale to increasing student self-direction in learning.

Within each of these categories, further qualitative judgments were then made in terms of 'A', 'B', 'C' and 'D' gradings, representing a continuum. Grading A signals a clear rejection of the relevant category; Grading B represents a 'no comment or inference' pertaining to the relevant category; Grading C is a positive but not strong support for the category; while Grading D signifies strong support for the relevant category.

**Figure 1** hereunder summarises the data:

Group 1

| | Institution | A | B | C | D | E |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | Accepts E | B | D | B | B | B |
| 2 | E in prog bldg | B | D | B | D | D |
| 3 | Chnge-P to R | B | B | C | C | C |
| 4 | 4th-distinct | C | B | C | B | B |
| 5 | 4th-linear | C | D | B | D | D |
| 6 | 4th-culmn | C | B | B | B | C |
| 7 | theory/pract | B | C | B | D | B |
| 8 | Project | B | B | D | D | B |
| 9 | Prs'nl growth | B | D | B | B | B |
| 10 | Prof Growth | D | D | D | C | D |
| 11 | Ed fndtns | D | B | D | B | B |
| 12 | Appl curric | D | D | D | C | C |
| 13 | Self direct'n | B | B | C | B | D |

Group 2

| | Institution | F | G | H | I | J | K |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | Accepts E | A | D | B | A | B | A |
| 2 | E in prog bldg | D | D | D | C | C | B |
| 3 | Chnge-P to R | B | C | D | D | A | B |
| 4 | 4th-distinct | C | D | A | A | D | A |
| 5 | 4th-linear | C | A | D | D | B | D |
| 6 | 4th-culmn | B | B | B | B | B | B |
| 7 | theory/pract | C | C | C | C | C | C |
| 8 | Project | D | D | D | D | D | B |
| 9 | Prs'nl growth | D | B | B | D | C | B |
| 10 | Prof Growth | D | D | D | D | D | C |
| 11 | Ed fndtns | C | C | C | A | A | D |
| 12 | Appl curric | D | C | C | D | C | C |
| 13 | Self direct'n | C | C | C | C | C | B |

## Discussion

Programmes **A, B, C, D** and E have been grouped together in view of the following common features:

- no 'A' grades are recorded for these institutions;
- the highest category of response is 'B';
- the second highest grade of response is 'D' with one exception (programme B);
- there is no one single category from these programmes which has a consistent pattern across the institutions in this grouping.

Programmes F, G, H, I and J have the following common features:

- Although there is at least one 'A' grade response from each institution, this grade is the lowest for each institution, with the exception of Programme I.

- The highest or equal highest grading for institutions in this grouping is 'D' (except for institution G which was 'C').
- Of all 13 categories, institutions in this grouping share a common response for categories, 6 (4th-culm.), 7 (Theory/pract.), 10 (Prof.growth) and 13 (Self-directn). Apart from these commonalities, no other consistent pattern is clear from this introductory study.

What may be inferred from the above data? Firstly, at a very general level, N.S.W. teacher education institutions (primary) can be roughly categorised into camps — those who 'play it safe' and those who 'live a little more dangerously'. The 'play it safe' group do so either by refraining from negative judgments or comments about "received" categories or by simply refraining from making judgments or comments in those categories where some negative comment might be made. After all, why raise further problems in re-accreditation documentation when the compilation of documents and the re-accreditation process is sufficiently problematic in and of itself? The 'live a little dangerously' group — and 'little' must be emphasised here — display clearer commitments either for or against the "received" categories. Each institution in this group has at least one negative response (A grade) as well as a stronger profile in the 'D' grading. Additionally, institutions in this latter group show a greater degree of consensus, at least in relation to categories 6, 7, 10 and 13. These comments aside, perhaps the most obvious overall feature from this analysis is the fascinating degree of diversity which exists between each institution's fourth-year programmes. Of the 13 'received' categories, only categories 10 (professional growth) and 12 (applied curriculum studies) have consistent across-the-board support (i.e. either a "C" or a 'D' grading). Category 8 (Project) is consciously incorporated into 7 programmes, and not mentioned for the remainder.

On the basis of this analysis, the B.Ed. fourth year in N.S.W. teacher education institutions displays a considerable diversity within an uneasy form of unity. If the intent of H.E.B. 1979 guidelines was to produce a measure of conformity and rationalisation between institutions, clearly this has not happened. On the other hand, if the H.E.B. guidelines were intended to encourage institutional diversity within a pre-specified framework, then such a view is at least partly confirmed by this analysis. Diversity is there a-plenty, but unity appears to have been bifurcated firstly by institutional practices and interpretations of H.E.B. guidelines, and secondly, by a form of unity which has been imposed without regard to criteria and principles pertaining to professional development of teachers (MacLeod, G.R. et al. 1988). As a consequence, N.S.W. fourth year B.Ed. programmes do not and cannot meet commonly-agreed criteria for the professional development of teachers.

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## 9.5 ATTITUDES AND SKILLS OF PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS TO COMPUTERS

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### Background and Methodology

Students entering Teaching Programs come from a variety of backgrounds and experiences. It is becoming obvious that while some have had no previous opportunities to use computers, others have pursued Computer Studies and Computing Options within Mathematics and other Courses at school, and still others have access to computers in their homes or part-time work environments. Therefore it is no longer possible to make assumptions about the entry behaviours of students enrolling in College Programs, and this increases the difficulty in planning appropriate introductory courses. Such a wide range of previous experiences also affects the attitudes of students to the use of technology in society and it is therefore necessary to take these attitudes into consideration in Course planning.

In order to provide data on the skills and attitudes of undergraduate teaching students at the Catholic College of Education Sydney towards computers in society and in their professional work, a 93 item questionnaire consisting of two parts, was distributed to each student in the various teaching programs on each campus of the College in November, 1986. The first part was intended to provide descriptive data on students' attitudes towards the use of computers in society and education in general and was based on research by Fitzgerald et al. (1981) and Fitzgerald, Hattie and Hughes (1985). The second part of the questionnaire was designed for this study to provide descriptive data on students' knowledge of and attitudes towards the use of computers in specific classroom settings. All respondents were requested to complete a section seeking "background information" which was used to compile a "subject profile". Information was sought on items such as sex, age, ethnic background, secondary education, suburb of residence and career aspirations. Of the 540 questionnaires returned for analysis 388 (72%) were from females and 152 (28%) were from males. The majority of students who responded to the questionnaire were aged 18 - 22 with an average age of 21.2. years.

### Attitudes to Computers

This section of the questionnaire contained 43 items which probed students' beliefs about the role and use of computers in society in general, and education in particular. Students were asked to record whether they Strongly Agreed, Agreed, were Not Sure, Disagreed, or Strongly Disagreed with a series of statements. There were no significant differences in the responses of male and female students on any of the items (at the .01 level or less).

In general students' responses to the ten statements relating to computers in the workplace suggest that their perceptions about the introduction of computers and related technologies in this environmemt are generally negative. A general impression from these items is that students were somewhat uneasy and uncertain about the current and future role of computers in the workplace. Overall between one quarter and one third of the students recorded a "not sure" response to items in this category. Only one item, asking whether computers were widely used in shops and offices, was answered with more certainty. Obviously students do come into contact with the technology in these contexts and recognise that its use is widespread. Many students felt that computers in the workplace have, or will have, a negative effect on aspects such as job security, unemployment/workforce participation. For example 40% of students believed that 'computers will throw many people out of work.' Another 29% were uncertain about this prospect. In response to another item on a similar topic 46% agreed that 'many people would lose their jobs' as computers were increasingly used in factories. Interestingly, only 29% believed that computers should not be used if people would lose their jobs. Most students however, either disagreed with or were uncertain about this idea. Few students (13%) thought that the 'brainy jobs' would be taken over by computers and 45% agreed that the 'boring jobs' should be taken over by computers.

There were two items relating to the need for computer literacy in order to enhance job prospects and 60% of students recognised that knowing how to use computers would help people get jobs.

Students' responses to statements about apprehension and feelings of alienation suggest that they are generally apprehensive about the role and use of computers in society and concerned that computers will serve to alienate humans by taking over some of the functions normally associated with human endeavour. About half of the students felt that computers had the potential to create a dependency on technology that would relegate humans to 'second place'. Such views seem to indicate lack of adequate knowledge about the real role and function of computers in society and suggest that students believe that computers have the power to 'think' and make decisions independently of human control.

About half of the students surveyed agreed that computers had some effect on people's lives. The other half felt that computers had little or no effect on day to day life, or were uncertain about the effect of the technology on people's lives. Given the widespread applications of computer technologies in society - from telecommunications to 'flexi tellers' - the naivety of this view was cause for some concern. On a more personal level, 39% agreed that 'computers had little or no effect' on their own life, while 16% of students were uncertain about this statement.

Most students (71%) agreed that as a society we are depending more on computers, but most (43%) disagreed with or were not sure (22%) about the the idea that computers were necessary to 'handle the difficult problems of everyday' life. The statement that 'we would be better off without computers' was supported by 12% of respondents, with another fifth of the group expressing uncertainty on this point. Similarly 15% of the group disagreed with the statement that 'computers will make life easier'.

Responses to items relating to the ability of people to use computers suggests that computer operation is still surrounded by some mystique. A number of students clearly perceived that computers were enigmatic devices, the operation of which was beyond the capabilities of the average person.
Some 17% of the students felt that they 'would never be able to use a computer' with a further 10% being unsure on this point. The remaining students were confident that they could use a computer. Most students (73%) correctly recognised that one doesn't have to be particularly 'clever' to use computers, nor 'know what goes on inside a computer to be able to use it' (61%). The statement 'most people would find it hard to use computers' was supported by 30% of the group. A number of students (34%) felt that using computers was a time consuming exercise. Whatever students' beliefs about

the abilities required to use computers successfully only 25% believed that most people would be able to afford to buy a computer, yet almost 50% agreed that computers will soon 'be used at home as often as the telephone'.

## Computers in Education

This section of the questionnaire was designed to provide some idea of how students perceived the use of computers in schools.

The responses of the students indicated that despite some of their somewhat negative attitudes towards computers in society, they believed that there was a very definite role for the use of computers in education. 79% of students either stongly agreed or agreed that 'computers wil help in education.' 70% strongly agreed or agreed that 'there should be more use of computers in education'. Similarly, 70% strongly agreed or agreed that 'school children should be taught at an early age how to use computers', and that 'computers can help pupils who have trouble learning things at school.'

The twelve questions relating to ability of students to apply computers revealed that there was a constant 15% of students who felt that they were competent to both use computers in their classrooms and to teach about them. 75% of students confirmed the need to be better prepared to use computers and computer related technologies in their classrooms.

The final section gave students an opportunity to express their opinions on the advantages of computers in the classroom. Their responses were measured on a six point scale moving from strongly undesirable to strongly desirable.
For twelve of the questions, a strong majority of students (71% - 93%) gave answers affirming the desirability of using computers in classrooms. Their strongest support (93%) was for the use of the computer as an information source through the use of data bases etc., although use for practising concepts and skills and developing learning through simulation was also high (83% and 85% respectively).

## Recommendations for Teacher Education Program

There would seem to be no question that the use of computers in educational environments will become both more widespread and more sophisticated. To date, one of the major impediments to the development of educational computing has been the lack of professional development available to teachers already in the workplace. Many researchers and advisors see that the key to moving technologically forward rests with the education of current pre-service students.

The results of this survey indicate that while the majority of teaching students at this College accept that the use of computers in education is a positive activity, most of them feel inadequate to actually implement computers in their classrooms. Added to this there would seem to be quite a level of apprehension and uncertainty about the potential and effects of computer technology in society in general. There would therefore seem to be a need to implement programs which would:

* develop an awareness of contemporary and future applications of computer technology
* develop an understanding of the implications of computers and related technologies for the individual and society at large

- develop an understanding of the implications of the use of computers and related technologies on teaching practice and the overall concept of education
- develop specific knowledge, skills understanding and attitudes about computer applications in teaching
- help students gain confidence in their ability to interact with computers in generic as well as professionally appropriate situations
- develop a functional understanding of the ways in which computers work
- help students locate and utilise professionally appropriate resources and references for obtaining information about contemporary applications of computers in educational settings, and to
- develop an understanding of the ways in which computers are used in school administrative contexts (eg, assessment and evaluation, attendance etc.).

In addition it would also be beneficial for students, in terms of gaining familiarity with computer technology, to see computers and related technologies as an every day part of the teacher education program. Some general educational applications that would complement more specific teaching applications include:

- using computers for instructional purposes across a range of curriculum areas,
- student use of computers for word processing essays and reports,
- student use of on line data bases for research,
- student use of statistical packages for analysis of research data,
- record keeping, and
- testing (generating, administering, and scoring)

Obviously too, it would be desirable for students to see and use computers during periods of school experience.

## Developments

There has been considerable development of computer education units at the College, since this survey was conducted, and there are now students in the Bachelor of Education (Secondary) Program who are doing Computer Studies as a full teaching method. There are also compulsory and elective units within the Education strands of all Teaching Programs as well as several specialised curriculum units.

# 9.6 WILL THINGS IMPROVE A LITTLE BY (a) DEGREE

## Teaching the Teacher Educators in Papua New Guinea

**Denis McLaughlin**

University of Papua New Guinea

In February of 1987, the Bachelor of Education (Tertiary). (B.Ed.T) program at the University of Papua New Guinea (UPNG) became operational. The structure of the program is outlined.

Year

1 Full time study at UPNG
2 Full time supervised intership at a teachers college in PNG
3 Full time study at a CAE (Australia)
4 Final six week induction program

The implicit aims of the program are:

- To accelerate localization in teachers' colleges;
- To improve the quality of college teaching;

To improve the standard of teaching in community schools

In a word then, the B.Ed.T., is considered to be at significant means of promoting a "quality" in PNG education. Beeby and others have asserted with reason, that quality in education depends largely on the quality of teachers but quality teachers emerge from institutions where higher quality teacher educators are to be found (Maraj, 1974:).

### The Students

The students are all qualified primary teachers with at least 5 years teaching experience. They have completed only 10 years formal education. This standard compared to Australia might approximate late year 8 - early year 9. They have been educated and teach in a standardized way, (Dunkin, 1977), that Beeby in his hypothesis of educational stages for developng countries, called Formalism. (Beeby 1968:72). Teachers are generally efficient, but their teaching has limited meaning and is quite formal. With the gradual introduction of text books in some subjects, the syllabus is less restrictive, but teachers hesitate to use greater freedom. The grade 6 final examination restricts experimentation. The child's emotional and creative life is not noticed. This description, however is in cultural congruence with traditional education expectations.

> ...at no point is the young learner expected or encouraged to innovate. Indeed, innovation might well be frowned upon as rebellion against superior knowledge and power of the elders. He/she is called upon to observe, learn and reduplicate received knowledge and tribal mores (Wong and Swan 1984:7).

## The Problem

It might be expected that increased professional education would be the major means to promote quality teacher educators. Yet, two recent researches in PNG (Roberts, 1986; Guthrie, 1983) found no significant effects of general education and professional training on teacher performance. As a result of World Bank initiative - The Education Two Project, PNG teachers colleges have more qualified staff than ever before. The question to pose is: what has been the impact of this educated personnel on the teachers' colleges? There is little hard data available, but as part of a wider research The Teacher, Research Project a case study incoporating interview data from 47 lecturers, suggested that the impact on teaching has not been significant. One senior lecturer summarized this general theme aptly:

> Teaching methods generally used here are talk and chalk or stimulated lessons-in a word spoonfeeding. Students are being trained not educated. We are hoping if they can perform satisfactorily, in a classroom, but we fail to see beyond this. (McLaughlin, 1988:62).

The reasons for this are complex. The focus of an investigation might examine contextual factors operating within colleges. However, it behoves a teacher of potential teacher educators to examine the content and processes of courses offered at the University. It has been all too easy to adopt foreign education models uncritically, which in many cases have not been successful within a PNG milieu. Often expatriate educators fail to "take into account the experiences which have already been imprinted upon the learner's mind" (Jones, 1974:2), and ignore them Melanesian cultural and educational perpectives.

> The easier solution ...is to judge their worth using a basically white middle-class set of evaluative criteria (Thaman, 1977:26).

## Papua New Guinea Experience of Education

Traditionally, both revealed and sacred knowledge was transmitted and accepted uncritically, and was considered finite and its veracity not tested, which of course, is in direct contrast to the aims of a western university education. Indeed the classroom experience in both primary and secondary schools is entirely teacher dominated (Vulliamy, 1987:3) without a focus on student learning (Otto, 1988), and in a language that is fraught with difficulties for most PNG learners. The education experience then for Papua New Guineans has been that of survival.

Teacher students at UPNG would most likely approach formal study from Perry's (1970) position of dualism and operate cognitively in concrete terms though appropriate educational experience will promote the move toward formal thought. Dualistic learners exhibit the following characteristics which reflect common concerns among UPNG students.

1. Encounters with uncertainty or diversity are very stressful.

2. Interpretative taks (assignments) pose great difficulties. It is quite hard to compare and contrast an issue, where one does not recognize that a variety of legitimate view points exist.

3. Learning occurs at the discretion of the instructor, the authority who has the right answers; independent approaches to a course are a decided exception.

4. Evaluation may take on an overwhelming importance; students may be confused about the criteria for giving grades and may pay excessive attention to procedural details (eg. number of papers.) (Widick and Simpson, 1978:31).

## CURRICULUM STRATEGIES TO PROMOTE COGNITIVE GROWTH

A lecturer involved with students operating from a dualistic system would need to develop teaching and learning strategies, which would provide both challenge and support. Educators who desire to introduce alternative perceptions of reality to their students have to instigate a "disequilibrium so valuable in challenging (the learner's) present values and thought structures and help them develop alternate modes of thinking" (Meyers, 1986:93).

Research (Stephenson and Hunt, 1977) has suggested that this confrontation and support can be achieved with four processes operating, namely:- structure, personalism, experience, diversity.

Similarly, Sprinthall and Theis-Sprinthall (1983) have advocated a model for teacher education based also on growth in cognition. Their rationale is that "if teachers can grow toward greater complexity as thinkers in a developmental sense (then) they are more likely to be able to perform the complex tasks of instruction..." (Theis-Sprinthall, 1986:15).

Though there is no blue print curriculum model specifically articulated Theis-Sprinthall (1986) has suggest the following as tentative guidelines.

1. Significant Role Taking Experience: Roletaking is not role playing, since the student is expected to perform new and more complex inter personal tasks than the preferred mode.

2. Careful and Continuous Guided Reflection: The notion that reflective thinking promotes learning processes which mirror high steges of development is not new. Learning seems to be effeciently promoted through a combination of action and reflection.

3. Balance between real experience and discussion/reflection/teaching: Adult learners seem to prefer to use personal experience as a major stimulus to learn. They like their learning to be problem centred with relevance to their life situation. Such conditions promote

intrinsic motivation and fosters a deeper and more reflective outcome, which in turns promotes a fuller understanding of practice.

## THE PROGRAM

All students in the BEd.T program participate in four out of eight courses which aim at delibrately promoting cognitive change. It is not appropriate to elaborate in detail here but the following components are part of the curriculum in the four subject areas.

### 1. Structure

All course outlines are detailed, with a clear structure articulated fos assignment work. Assessment, procedures are clear, along with an assessment criteria for every assignment project etc. All courses have their own specially produced workbook.

### 2. Personalism

A weekly interview with the course co-ordinator is timetabled. Some assignments have programmed into them a series of meetings to discuss drafts. A high degree of personal support is maintained when mediocre work is confronted.

### 3. Experience, Role taking, Deversity

Students teach weekly in all the courses. They teach each other, other adults, primary school children in Community and International Schools and conduct a research project at the teachers' college.

### 4. Careful and Continuous Guided Reflection

A weekly reflective journal, self evaluation of teaching as well as video observations of teaching are structures aimed at promoting guided reflection.

## CONCLUSION

Is the curriculum a success? Current research is attempting to monitor if these students adopt deep learning strategies and are more self directed than the general population of inservice teachers. Quantitative data are not available as yet; however journal enteries and the quality of basic research reports tend to tentatively suggest that a more reflective and more careful observer and critic of practice is gradually evolving.

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## 11.1 Collaborating with Industry on the Issue of Curriculum and Work

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One of the most significant developments associated with current changes in education and industry is the universal demand that young people need a comprehensive understanding of work. Employers, unionists, educators and others in the community have acknowledged that today's youth needs to come to grips with the complex array of economic, political, historical, scientific, social and cultural factors that influence the world of work. One of the key issues facing educators and others is determining the most effective ways of generating this knowledge. The purpose of this session will be to investigate the range of current approaches to curriculum and work being adopted by education and industry. Particular attention will be paid to the development of co-operative projects in which multipartite approaches have been adopted.

### Why should work be included in the school curriculum?

A barrage of papers, statements, official reports, newspaper articles and television documentaries in recent times, has emphasised the need for fundamental changes in education and work. Both sectors are under pressure to respond more directly to client needs; to become more innovative and entrepreneurial; and to improve the quality of their products and services. Firms are being called upon to become more efficient, dynamic and competitive. For schools the emphasis is on becoming more relevant, practical and rigorous.

There can be little doubt that economic considerations have been important in this development. With declining commodity prices, advancing information technologies and fluctuating financial markets, the demand that substantial changes are needed to remodel Australian industry has become widespread. The argument that the role of education and training is central to Australia's economic future has been gaining momentum during the last few years. The central thrust of the argument is that people with broadly-based knowledge and skills are the key to improving the international competitiveness of our goods and services. Increasingly, schools are being seen as having a significant role to play in the development of a more flexible, motivated and creative workforce.

From an educational viewpoint, the world of work is seen as providing a focus for student learning; establishing and maintaining a balance between theory and practice; and providing a sense of coherence for student learning. Acting as a common thread or unifying theme, it can help to draw together discrete areas of study or learning experiences. For many students the curriculum appears as a fragmented jumble of unrelated subjects and units. The world of work has the potential to establish a sense of purpose and direction not only to what students learn at school but also to their post-school experiences.

## What do young people need to know about work?

As the rationale for including work in the curriculum has been clarified, interest has begun to focus more on the issue of content. What exactly is it that students should know about work? Educators, employers, unionists, politicians and others are now advocating that students should learn more about the general context within which both paid and unpaid work is located. In curriculum terms this means coming to grips with the complex array of economic, political, historical, scientific, social and cultural factors that influence the world of work.

The current emphasis is on acquiring a general understanding of the complex framework surrounding all forms of productive activity. Learning about the structure and organisation of work, the impact of technology, and the contribution of individuals and groups to work and society, for example, is seen as important. A significant thrust of the new approach to the study of work is on students gaining realistic insights to past, present and future patterns of work. Considering issues such as industrial relations, health and safety in the workplace and attitudes to work is seen as helpful in developing in young people a realistic view of today's world.

## How should work be included in the curriculum?

A diverse range of approaches for including work in the curriculum has been developed in Australia. For many schools, technical subjects such as Secretarial Studies and Industrial Arts have been a component of the curriculum for quite some time. Career education and counselling, work experience and various projects and activities designed to bridge the perceived gap between school and work became widespread during the 1970's and early 1980's.

More recently, in response to the demand that all students need a sound general education, greater effort has been concentrated on the integration of work across the curriculum. *Work! Work! Work!* for example, a set of curriculum materials designed for use in a range of subject disciplines, has been published recently by the Curriculum Development Centre. Many states and territories have become involved with the planning and implementation of new courses and units which have the world of work as a major focus. 'Australian Studies' in Victoria; 'Work Education' in South Australia and 'Work and Daily Life' in Tasmania are just three examples. Other innovative activities including enterprise schemes, school-TAFE programs and community projects have been initiated.

## How have education and industry co-operated in the past?

Industry has been involved in many approaches concerned with linking education more closely to the world of work. Participating as representatives on various committees, councils and boards has been a well-established practice for many years. Acting as hosts for sudent excursions to local manufacturing plants and enterprises; visiting schools to speak to groups of students, staff and parents; publishing materials and providing support for school-work projects in the form of funds or equipment are other strategies that have been adopted by industry and commerce.

In the early 1980's, education and industry began to develop a more co-operative approach to the issue of curriculum and work. The Victorian School-Industry Project, for example, has involved representatives from the Victorian Employers Federation, the Australian Chamber of Manufactures, the Australian Council of Trade Unions

(ACTU), the Victorian Ministry of Education and other agencies in a series of activities designed to link schools with industries in local areas. A part-time state co-ordinator and regional staffing positions have been established. At present the project is operating in four regions which include both metropolitan and country areas.

As part of the project Watsonia Technical School has developed units and activities in art and graphics in co-operation with Deeko Australia Pty Ltd. Horsham Technical School has linked with the Kitchen Man, a local manufacturer, to study the impact of technology on the cabinet making industry. Northcote Technical School has worked closely with Fairfield Hospital in developing exercises in food and catering. Students from Mt Clear Technical School have produced two newsletters and six newspaper articles for the local Queen Elizabeth Geriatric Centre. Reservoir High School has collaborated with Kodak Australasia Pty Ltd in a small action-research project centred on computer studies. (For a case study of this activity see Cumming, 1987.)

## How can education and industry co-operate more effectively in the future?

If the level of interest and enthusiasm for co-operative projects demonstrated at an education-industry conference organised by the Curriculum Development Centre at the end of 1987 is any indication, activity in this area seems set to expand. As an outcome of this conference, sixteen co-operative projects at national, state, regional and local levels were proposed by representative workshop groups. (For more detailed information see Cumming, 1988.) At the time of writing several of these proposals are in the process of being implemented. The *Industry-Education Interchange Project*, for example, is promoting the interchange of educators and administrators with industry personnel; the *Mini-Enterprises Project* is extending the range of enterprise activities across the curriculum at secondary and primary levels; the *Regional Curriculum Reform Project* is embracing new ways of learning about work in an action research framework; the *Part-Time Work Project* is using young people's experience of work as a basis for understanding the nature, organisation and structure of work. These and other projects are being co-ordinated by agencies from education and industry and will operate within a frame of reference determined by groups representative of the major parties involved.

As with any innovation one of the greatest problems for co-operative projects is the translation of theory into practice; of ideas into actions; of rhetoric into reality. Because a policy of collaboration and co-operation between education and industry is receiving widespread endorsement at present, there is a real danger of individuals and groups assuming that projects will follow automatically. Many policy makers have lamented the fact that 'good' policies, by themselves, do not necessarily produce desired outcomes. While representatives from education, industry and the wider community may agree that co-operative projects should be implemented, mere endorsement will be insufficient to get the projects up and running.

Healthy relationships between participating parties obviously will be an important factor in overcoming these problems. Agencies will need to retain some degree of autonomy in relation to a co-operative project, but at the same time establish and maintain a firm and practical commitment to its development. A useful term from the literature to describe the desired balance is *'loose coupling'*. The value of the term is in recognising that at on the one hand, each agency has its own value system and is subject to various pressures, while on the other, it needs to be connected to a discrete decision-making structure for the life of a project.

While action at the local or 'micro' level can be seen as the fundamental component of co-operative project development, consideration must be given also to the 'macro' level. The creation of state or regional level committees to provide both guidance and support may be a strategy worthy of further consideration. Recent developments in the decentralisation of education in both Victoria and Western Australia would suggest that regional committees may be a possible strategy. In Tasmania, the ACT and the NT, however, state-wide groups may be considered more desirable.

There is a need for reference points where procedures can be negotiated and advice given on issues such as the payment of students; workers compensation; union membership; insurance; 'fair trading' and so on. One advantage of reference groups at this level is improved networking facilitating the sharing of experiences between groups who are engaged currently in the process of implementing projects. There is considerable activity already underway with regard to the development of stronger links between education and industry. Steps need to be taken to ensure that duplication is avoided and that limited human resources are used to maximum effectiveness.

## Concluding comments

If the aims for co-operative projects being endorsed currently by education and industry are to be achieved, then a balance of support and pressure at both the micro and the macro level will need to be established and maintained. While the motivation, commitment and competence of those dealing directly with young people is a prerequisite for the implementation of a co-operative project, this needs to take place within a larger framework of advice, guidance and coercion.

The implementation of a co-operative venture should be viewed as a developmental process during which a project will evolve rather than follow some predetermined plan. Participants could benefit, for example, by adopting an action research approach, whereby a continual cycle of planning, action and reflection is instituted. Just as it unlikely that any two projects will be implemented in exactly the same way, it is doubtful that they will have identical outcomes. Projects should be promoted, therefore, as explorative rather than definitive.

It is inevitable that the implementation of co-operative projects will be demanding and even onerous for those involved. Extensive consultation, collaboration and negotiation is required to translate ideas into actions. In this sense, the way a project is implemented is in itself a significant project outcome. The critical insights gained by participants of co-operative ventures will be useful in creating new models of curriculum development in the future more in line with the needs and aspirations of young people and their communities.

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# 11.2 POLITICAL ECONOMY, DEMOGRAPHY AND TEACHER EDUCATION

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The argument advanced in this paper is that there are two major sets of variables which will determine the shape and mid term future of teacher education programmes in Australian higher education institutions. The most quantifiable and pressing influences stem from demographic trends and projections which affect the demand for teachers, especially the demand for pre-service graduates of teacher education courses. The second, and equally important determinant of the shape of teacher education programs during the next 5-10 years is the current political economy of the Australian Federal Government. Trends in both of these sets of variables pose constraints and problems which will require of teacher education courses some difficult adjustments and curriculum changes during he decade of 1990s.

## The Influence of Political Economy

The term *political economy* is defined here to mean the interpolation of Federal Government political goals and objectives into the domain of economic resource growth, development, distribution and management. Economic resources for education have become a prime target for this activity. Recent Federal Government publications in the field of national education policy have enunciated a set of economically oriented priorities for Australian higher education which, together with demographic pressures, foreshadow a lean and potentially demoralizing future for teacher education courses and faculties.

The Green Paper, *Higher Education : A Policy Discussion Paper* [1] makes it quite explicit, at the outset that the thrust of government policy in the higher education sector is to harness the higher institutions in a way which promotes future growth "in a manner consistent with our economic, social and cultural needs".[2] The authors of the Green Paper note that the achievement of this growth in a "climate of continuing financial constraint will require close attention to the efficient use of resources in higher education"[3] The emphasis upon "skilling" and "cost effectiveness" bears out the currently proclaimed political economy of higher education. In this plan, higher educational institutions are intended to be used by the Federal Government to help solve short term and mid term economic problems. This runs contrary to the traditionally accepted aims and functions of Universities. There is flawed logic in using institutions which are designed and geared towards long term future oriented contributions as instruments to forge short term economic remedies for an economy in the trough of a trade cycle. At conferences, held recently in Australian Universities to discuss the Green Paper proposals, the blatantly economic nature of government intentions for higher education have been extensively criticised. For example, Denis J Davis[4] comments are typical of many from higher education; he finds the Green Paper disturbing because "it seeks radical and extensive changes for higher education for improved national economic performance without adequate thought as to directions to take and without thought as to how to control the partners with which this improved economic performance requires education to work".

While it is acknowledged that the Green Paper has found favour in some sectors, William West[5] in his comments upon the text of the Australian Vice-Chancellor's Committee's Response to the Green Paper, claims that "At the heart of the document (i.e. the Vice-Chancellor's Report) is a fear that Canberra is about to hijack the Universities to achieve tasks that traditionally have been left to other sectors of the education system - notably the TAFE sector".

If the political economy of the Green Paper becomes reality, how will it affect teacher education? The faculties and departments which will benefit most will be those which can demonstrate that their efforts directly increase export potential, import replacement and economic growth and employment. Because the graduates of teacher education courses contribute to none of these government priorities, the chances of teacher education departments competing successfully for research and other development funds, with science and technological faculties, are very slim. Teacher education is definitely not a technological growth area. It has difficulty in attracting the best high school graduates who are more likely to be attracted to the "high tech" glamour of science, commerce and computing courses. Salary ranges and career prospects for graduates in these areas are far greater than for teaching careers.

Under the Green Paper proposals[6] the Federal Government will support a funding system that responds to institutional performance and the achievement of agreed goals. It suggests the development of reliable performance indicators and acknowledges the difficulty for service industries such as Education whose activities "are not readily assessable in terms of quantity; quality, durability and reliability". The implication of this for teacher education will be to put pressure upon teacher education faculties to focus especially upon those aspects of our task which are quantifiable and which allow easy comparison with applied sciences and accounting faculties. This pressure to demonstrate quantitatively, our level of efficiency and effectiveness may lead to significant changes in our teacher education curricula, changes which focus on the "skilling" aspects of our courses, at the expense of the foundational courses involving a "general education" understanding of the contributory disciplines of education studies. Will teacher education courses become more"in school" based? Will there be greater pressure for students to spend more weeks of each term in practice teaching, as has been the trend in English Post-graduate Certificate in Education courses?

The pressure for greater cost-effectiveness in higher education will most certainly lead to a change in the ratio of lecture hours to tutorial hours in teacher education courses. What of "elective studies" in teacher education courses, in which students choose from a range of options in non-compulsory specialized fields e.g. special education, computer education, environmental education, etc? Choice costs additional money, so we are told by the accountants, thus a casualty of "cost cutting" in the name of efficiency will most certainly be the elective courses increasingly seen as unaffordable luxuries in a teacher education curriculum.

The preparation of teachers for vocational and/or work-related courses in secondary schools is an urgent problem for teacher education administrators. An issue raised in the Green Paper[7] is the need for an increased vocational emphasis in the secondary school curriculum. The subjects of science and mathematics are singled out by the Green Paper for "teacher education and retraining". The Green Paper mentions a pilot co-operation program among employers, teachers and higher education institutions in respect of the production of mathematics and science teachers and a better understanding of science and mathematics by primary teachers. Most significant is the proposal that the government "proceeds urgently in consultation with the states to set up a major discipline assessment of teacher education in mathematics and science. This is evidence of the potential impact of the Federal Government's political economy upon teacher education courses.

While the emphasis given to mathematics and science as the foundation for technologically based policies of the Government can be easily justified in terms of economic and political logic, from the supply side of the labour market there is no automatic guarantee that students will flood into mathematics and science teacher education specializations, simply because government policy favours this emphasis. There is a fear and a danger that teacher education course planners may distort the balance of their student intakes in response to government policies, only to find the supply of qualified applicants for mathematics and science specializations fall far short of the expected demand. This is a high probability simply because graduates qualified in these areas find salary range and career opportunities in the private industry and commerce sector far more attractive than those offering in the teaching profession. It is becoming increasingly difficult to recruit mathematics and science graduates to Graduate Diploma courses.

The impact of government economic policies upon the curricula of teacher education courses may extend even further, in that new employment related subjects introduced into the secondary school will place demands for specially mounted curriculum courses in those fields such as"small business management", "tourist catering" and "E" courses, now a feature of the ACT Schools Authority secondary school curriculum. At one secondary school senior college in Canberra "E" courses are offered in "Hospitality" (catering and waiting) and "Information Processing" (preparation for the Higher Tech Office).[8] It will be interesting to see how traditional teacher education administrators respond to the demand for curriculum courses in these secondary school specializations, particularly the recruitment of lecturing staff in these high capital cost fields where much equipment is required to train teachers. It is expected that teacher education faculties will draw upon the human and capital resources in the TAFE Colleges in these areas. However the actual practicalities of a closer association of CAEs with TAFEs will not be an easy thing to achieve at a time when CAEs are being urged to merge with Universities.

## The Influence of Demographic Variables Upon Teacher Education

Although the Green Paper plans for a 33% increase in the output of graduates from higher education by the year 2000AD[9] the probability of teacher education sharing equally with other higher education faculties in this total higher education output target of 125000 graduates per year is very remote. The major reason why teacher education courses will neither achieve, nor seek to achieve anything like a 33% increase in graduate output is demographic.

Since 1980 the number of children enrolled in primary schools in Australia fell from a peak of 1,884,100 in 1980 to a low of 1,692,500 in 1987.[10] It is not projected to regain its level of 1980 until after 2001, and by 1995 will only have reached a projected 1,844,000. The import of this reduction in demand for primary teachers has already been felt throughout the teacher education sector of higher education with the level of advanced education students commencing undergraduate courses in teacher education in Australia falling from 20,161 in 1979 to 17,855 in 1986, an 11.4% reduction.[11] For universities, students commencing bachelor degree courses in education for the same period experienced a 22.9% decline.

Because the trough in primary school enrolments carries through into the secondary school in the 1990s secondary enrolments which peaked in 1986 at 1,301,000 are projected to decline to 1,178,000 in 1993,[12] with only a slow recovery for the remainder of the decade. Any change in the projected age participation rate will, of course, alter these enrolment projections.

Thus the potential for increased enrolments and output in teacher education courses of between 2% and 3% per year until 2001 to meet government targets is limited. In fact the size of the teacher stock in the immediate period to 1992 will need to be reduced unless state governments allow pupil/teacher ratios and average class sizes to improve significantly to absorb the redundant teachers. With average resignation rates of teachers already low, and projected to stay that way, there is little scope for an increase in the replacement demand for teachers.

The net result of a contracting demand for teachers will cause teacher education faculties to experience even further constraint, and declining pre-service enrolments at a time when other faculties in their institutions are taking advantage of increasing enrolments. This puts teacher education faculties into a poor institutional bargaining position compared with technological science and commerce faculties, at at time when institutions will be involved in the politics of merges and takeovers. Internally it will force faculties and schools of education to shift their resources away from pre-service, towards in-service and post-graduate areas, including M.Ed programs where there is increasing competition for candidates among colleges and universities.

## Conclusion

The overall outlook is grim for those teacher education staff working in the pre-service fields and curriculum specializations, except for science and maths, or some of the employment related courses. My fear is that teacher education courses run the risk of becoming the poor orphan within merged CAEs and universities as a consequence of the operation of the political economy of the Federal Government and the demographic trends projected for the next ten years.

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[2] ibid p1

[3] ibid

[4] Davis, Denis J *Flexibility and Future Labour Needs in the Light of the Green Paper: A Consideration of the EHW Factor,* Paper presented at the National Conference on the Green Paper, University of New England, Armidale, February 1988. p3.

[5] West, William, *The Australian,*, 7 April 1988,p7.

[6] *Higher Education: A Policy Discussion Paper,* op cit p41.

[7] ibid p18.

[8] *The Copland Bulletin,* February 1988.

[9] *Higher Education: A Policy Discussion Paper,* op cit pp11-12

[10] Dept. of Employment Education and Training, *Schooling in Australia: Statistical Profile No.1,* AGPS, Canberra Nov 1987, p9.

[11] Commonwealth Tertiary Education Commission, *Tertiary Education Statistics,* May 1987, pp26-29.

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# 11.3 SOCIAL SKILLS TRAINING:

# A NEW EMPHASIS FOR PRESERVICE AND INSERVICE TEACHER TRAINING

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While traditionally the school's primary perceived function has been the teaching of academic skills there has been renewed interest in recent years in the school's role in the social development of children. The school has come to be viewed as a major socializing institution, a purveyor of social behaviours and attitudes second only to the home in our society (Cartledge and Milburn, 1978). Recent policy and curriculum documents from State Departments of Education have focussed on childrens' social development, and there is a new emphasis on the school's responsibility in facilitating social competence (Department of Education, Queensland, 1987)

## WHY SOCIAL SKILLS TRAINING?

Education authorities have not needed to search very hard for a rationale for school involvement in social skills training. The data linking children's social development with academic attainment, social adjustment, and occupational success is overwhelming. What is amazing is that schools have been able to function for so long without an established responsibility for this area of human learning.

Social skill deficits in the early years of schooling are regarded as the best single behavioural predictor of significant adjustment problems in the adult years. Socially unskilled children tend to be poorly accepted, overtly rejected, or ignored by peers. These same children have more mental health referrals than their socially skilled peers and became more problematic for deliquency. Socially unskilled children have major school adjustment problems, demonstrate disturbed peer relations, and exhibit lower levels of academic performance than their more socially competent peers. Social skill deficits have major implications for occupational success and stability. Social competence problems more so than work related skills are the major reasons for individuals losing their job (Gresham and Elliott, 1987; Hazel Schumaker, 1987; Hollinger. 1987; Walker and Calkins, 1986).

## WHY TEACHERS FAIL TO TEACH SOCIAL SKILLS

Vaughn (1985) has pinpointed a number of reasons why interpersonal social skills are not being taught in the schools.

1. Teachers may not perceive social skill development as important as teaching academic skills.
2. The academic emphasis of the school curriculum leaves little room for concentrating on social skills.
3. Teachers may be operating under the faulty assumption that children will acquire social skills by mere exposure to the behaviour of socially competent peers.
4. Teachers may not feel that social skill training is their responsibility.
5. Teachers may not feel comfortable with teaching interpersonal skills and may not believe they have the competence to do so.

This final reason for teachers' reluctance to teach social skills is an important one. It reflects a general characteristic of teachers to question educational developments for which they have little actual or perceived training and into which they would need to direct a great deal of time and effort (Waugh and Punch, 1987). Under these circumstances educational initiatives can encounter resistance.

Teachers judgements about the uniqueness of social skills training strategies may be faulty, and the anxiety which many teachers experience about this proposed new role may be unwarranted. A close look at the commonly used approaches to social skills training reveals that these strategies share much in common with methods teachers employ or are encouraged to employ in teaching to academic objectives. A possible exception would be the assessment procedures used in the development of social skills interventions. This paper looks at both aspects of commonality and uniqueness between academic and social skills instruction.

## APPROACHES TO SOCIAL SKILLS TRAINING

Like academic instruciton, social skills training procedures are based on a variety of learning perspectives. Procedures reflecting operant learning theory, social learning theory, cognitive-behavioural perspectives, and information processing theory have been reported in the literature. Several major approaches are outlined and discussed in the paper.

These include:

1. Contingent Reinforcement
2. Modelling
3. Coaching
4. Self-Control Techniques
5. Interpersonal Problem Solving

The above strategies are then related to two broad approaches to instruction which are advocated for use by teachers. These approaches are direct instruction and cognitive strategy training.

## APPROACHES TO THE ASSESSMENT OF SOCIAL SKILLS

Assessment procedures for (1) the screening and identification of children with social skills problems, (2) for the planning of interventions, and (3) for the evaluation of social skill programs are outlined.
These include:

1. Naturalistic Observation
2. Sociometric techniques
3. Teacher Rating Scales
4. Behavioural Interview
5. Behavioural Role Play

While these procedures are not in the normal repertoire of assessment skills of teachers their acquisition and use in the classroom is argued to be feasible.

## REFERENCES

A list of references will be made available during the presentation.

11.4

## A STUDY OF THE K-6 SCIENCE CURRICULUM IN N.S.W: IMPLICATIONS FOR PRE- AND INSERVICE

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### INTRODUCTION

The curriculum Investigating : Science (K-6) was released in late 1980. When the present study was undertaken, no information was available on the extent of use and level of implementation of this curriculum in N.S.W. This paper presents some of the results of the study (Gibbs, 1988) with a particular emphasis on the implications for pre- and inservice training of primary teachers.

### SURVEY PROCEDURES

The study was undertaken in mid 1987, six and a half years after the arrival of the curriculum in the survey schools. The survey area was in a non-metropolitan educational region of N.S.W and involved both State and Catholic schools. Thirty schools participated, with 215 instruments returned by teachers; a response rate of 62 percent.

The instrument used was one of the dimensions of the Concerns Based Adoption Model (CBAM), the Stages of Concern About the Innovation, which consists of two parts (Hall, et. al., 1976). The Stages of Concern Questionnaire (SoCQ) identifies an individual's Stage of Concern (SoC) when implementing a new curriculum; while the Demographic and Additional Information Questionnaire (DAIQ) allows for the construction of a profile of teachers in the study, collects data on the use and implementation of the curriculum, and for comparisons to be made between this data and SoC.

### OVERVIEW OF RESULTS

On a whole sample basis, 40 teachers (19 percent) were not using or implementing the curriculum. In their use of the curriculum, 71 teachers (33 percent) identified themselves as novice users and 86 (40 percent) as intermediate users. Only 15 teachers (7 percent) felt that they were 'old hand' users, and the remainder were past users. In their implementation of the curriculum, 112 teachers (52 percent) were implementing with some problems, forty-one (19 percent) with considerable problems, and only 21 (10 percent) were fully implementing.

A number of problems were identified with the initial release and early implementation of the curriculum. The major problem would seem to be the lack of sufficient, and appropriate, inservice training during the initial year of release and the remaining two years of the optional implementation phase. The majority of teachers (64 percent) had no formal training (pre- or inservice) in the use of the curriculum. Excluding the teachers who had pre-service training (8 percent), only 27 percent had some form of in-service training.

Other problems identified included: lack of support at the Regional level; the number of schools that have still not developed their own school K-6 science plan (47 percent); presentation and use of the curriculum documents (don't have copies, too bulky, no content); the time available to fit in the present 15 K-6 curricula and 14 other support/guidelines documents that have to be taught; and lack of teacher confidence in teaching science.

When the non-users are identified, the large majority of users are either at SoC 0 or 1. Forty-nine teachers (23 percent) were at SoC 2-6. This indicates that the great majority of teachers have not overcome their early awareness (SoC 0) and informational (SoC 1) concerns about the curriculum. These teachers could not be considered as effective users and implementers of the curriculum and would benefit from assistance to help in overcoming these early concerns so that they can progress to higher SoC. This is desirable as there is a correlation between SoC and use and implementation. They increase as SoC increase. In general, the higher SoC are not reached until the lower SoC are overcome.

## IMPLICATIONS FOR PRE- AND INSERVICE TRAINING

Before considering this issue, it would be useful to examine the responses of those teachers who have pre- and inservice training in the curriculum and compare/contrast their responses to the whole sample responses to two questions in the DAIQ. The results are presented in Table 1. The results highlight the value of inservice training in improving both the user and implementation classification of teachers when implementing a new curriculum. Although the number of teachers who had pre-service training only in the sample was small (8 percent), there would seem to be problems where this is the only form of training that teachers are exposed to.

Table 2 shows the results from the SoCQ. Except for SoC 0, the peak concern stage score can be interpreted directly from SoC definitions. To use the data for teachers with their peak concerns at Stage 0, they must first be identified as users or non-users of the curriculum. Once obtained, this information helps in identifying the types of assistance that would best meet the needs of teachers at the various SoC. Lowest SoC (0, 1, 2) are usually characteristic of non-users or inexperienced users and the higher stages (4, 5, 6) of more experienced users. Although some of the differences are small, the results would indicate that inservice training is successful in increasing the users of the curriculum, in decreasing the lower SoC, and increasing the higher SoC and therefore more effective use and implementation of the curriculum.

## CONCLUSION

The results of this survey supports the notion that the release of a new curriculum should be considered as a process and not an event. Implementation does not necessarily follow the release (adoption) of a curriculum. The process of implementation requires a number of years, and assistance to teachers needs to be provided to overcome their early SoC and to develop higher concerns on a progressive basis. The results would indicate that pre-service training alone is not sufficient to ensure that a curriculum will be effectively used and implemented. Much, therefore, still needs to be done if K-6 science for children is to become 'a mandatory integral part of the curriculum' for children in N.S.W.

All schools must develop their own school plan. In schools that have developed their own school plan, 88 percent of teachers found their school plan useful or very useful. Schools that have no K-6 science plan need assistance to develop one. As the majority of teachers in the total sample were either at Stage 0 (48 percent) or Stage 1 (29 percent), this represents a large number of teachers who still require assistance to become confident, experienced users. There would still appear to be a need for considerable inservice assistance. Information is needed on preservice training in K-6 science education before any recommendations can be made on this aspect. At present it is lacking.

The SoC instrument, consisting of the SoCQ and DAIQ, has proven to be a very appropriate one for this type of survey. It provides a wealth of information about teachers' use and implementation of a curriculum, problems they are encountering, and remedial actions that may be required.

Table 1. User and Implementation Classification of Teachers Who Had Formal Training in the Curriculum

| | User Classification* (Percent) | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | NU | N | I | OH | PU |
| Pre-service | 18 | 65 | 18 | 0 | 0 |
| Inservice | 6 | 4 | 57 | 28 | 4 |
| Combination | 0 | 20 | 60 | 20 | 0 |
| Total | 8 (17) | 20 (33) | 49 (40) | 20 (7) | 3 (3) |

* NU = Nonuser; N = Novice; I = Intermediate; OH = old hand; PU = past user.

| | Implementation* (Percent) | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | a | b | c | d |
| Pre-service | 6 | 59 | 12 | 24 |
| Inservice | 15 | 68 | 11 | 6 |
| Combination | 40 | 60 | 0 | 0 |
| Total | 16 (10) | 65 (52) | 9 (19) | 9 (19) |

* a = fully implementation; b = implementing with some problems; c = implementing with considerable problems; d = not implementing at all.

( ) Whole sample percentages.

Table 2. SoC of Teachers who had Formal Training in the Curriculum

| | Stages of Concern (Percent) | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 0# | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| | NU | U | | | | | | |
| Pre-service | 4 | 7 | 9 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| Inservice | 4 | 28 | 13 | 4 | 1 | 3 | 7 | 3 |
| Combination | 0 | 5 | 4 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| Total | 8(13) | 40(36) | 27(29) | 4(5) | 4(6) | 5(4) | 8(5) | 3(3) |

( ) Whole sample percentages; # NU = Non-user. U = User

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# 11.5 Progress and Promise in Primary Teacher Education in N.S.W.

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**Abstract:** *This paper reports some of the results of an analysis of the espoused curricula of primary teacher education programs (Diploma in Teaching/Bachelor of Education) in N.S.W. The analysis was carried out on the documents which institutions prepared for accreditation purposes and covered the period from 1980 to 1986/7. These primary teacher education programs are compared with the comments and recommendations of the N.S.W. Correy Report (1980) and changes over the five year period are noted. While the Dip.Teach/B.Ed. (Primary) programs in N.S.W. did tend to move in the directions suggested by the Correy Report, there are still issues of considerable concern which remain on the agenda.*

Teacher education programs have come under intense scrutiny in the eighties, in Australia as in other countries. The reports of the last decade at State and Federal level are indicative of the concern about education in general and teacher education in particular. The 1980 NITE Report (Report of the National Inquiry into Teacher Education) drew attention to the lack of research in teacher education, saying that, "....at the level of programs there is little published research of a longitudinal nature and even less published material relating to evaluation studies of different program types" (p.217). The analysis of primary teacher education programs in NSW undertaken by Northern Rivers College's Centre for Research on Teacher Education and Development attempts to provide an initial data base for the continuing evaluation and development of primary teacher education programs. This paper addesses the question of whether programs in primary teacher education in N.S.W.have been responsive to government reports, in the light of such criticism as that of the 1986 joint report of the Commonwealth's Tertiary Education Commission and the Schools Commission (CTEC/CSC Report) which said, ".....few teacher education institutions appear to have adapted effectively to the critical changes in the student population and the changing needs of teachers during the last decade" (p.37) and ".....that a more concerted effort could have been made by institutions to address the issues in question" (p.36). This paper explores the validity of those claims by comparing the changes in the espoused curricula over the period 1980-1986/7 with the comments and recommendations of the 1980 report which investigated teacher education in N.S.W. - the Correy Report ,"Teachers for Tomorrow".

This Report (1980, pp.195-206) had the following comments to make about teacher education in N.S.W.:

1. A single model of a teacher education program is unlikely to meet all needs and continuous change will be needed to respond to the social and educational changes in the years ahead.
2. The education of teachers must be seen as a career-long development.
3. While the balance between general education and professional studies may vary, professional studies should be no less than half of the program, and half of that time (approximately 20-25% of the total program) should be involvement in the practicum.
4. Students should reach a satisfactory academic standard in one or more areas in the general education strand.
5. The professional studies component should comprise foundation studies in education; courses in teaching and curriculum; and practical experiences, especially in schools.
6. The practicum should be central in the teacher education program and institutions should consult with schools and train the teacher supervisors.
7. Integration between components in the course is favoured as opposed to fragmentation arising from adherence to academic departments or disciplines.
8. Foundation studies in education should illuminate classroom issues and procedures.
9. The following areas were seen to warrant special comment :-.
    literacy and numeracy
    multicultural education
    Aboriginal education
    Atypical children
    non-sexist education
    environmental education
    art, craft, music, drama and physical education
    education technology and computers
    social and related issues and the child

The Report, "Professional Development and the Improvement of Schooling" (Coulter and Ingvarson, 1985), addressed similar issues to those in this paper. In considering how N.S.W. teacher education courses had met the recommendations of the various government reports, in particular the last recommendation noted above, they concluded that there was no direct response by the institutions although some modifications were made to existing courses (p.276). Coulter and Ingvarson's Report was one of the bases used by the Commonwealth's Joint Commissions Report. That Report came to the far more negative conclusion, which was quoted earlier, and that conclusion is not supported by the data from the current analysis of primary teacher education programs in N.S.W.

Primary preservice teacher education in NSW is mostly undertaken in concurrent three year programs, "concurrent" referring to the situation where education or professional courses and liberal arts course are taken together over those years. This leads to the award of the Diploma of Teaching. These preservice programs may be followed after a specified period of experience, with a further year or equivalent of professional education (the Fourth Year) which leads to the award of the Bachelor of Education. This structure is referred to as the 3+E+1 model. Most teacher education institutions in NSW proposed their new Bachelor of Education (Primary) programs in 1980. Five years later these programs were reviewed and these two accreditation processes gave rise to voluminous documentation. These documents have been analysed to describe the current nature of the espoused curricula and to record the changes in the primary teacher education programs in this five year period. There were twelve institutions covered by the analysis, eleven by the time of the 1986/7 documentation. A profile of each college's program was developed using the following headings:-

program rationales
program planning and review procedures
program structures and review procedures
program components
program responses to specific issues or priority areas.

A copy of our analysis was sent to each of the institutions and then a follow-up visit was made in order to discuss with staff the accuracy of our description. An initial analysis of these programs has already been reported in MacLeod and Rankin (1987).

Our analysis of the primary Dip.Teach./B.Ed. programs in N.S.W. would indicate that institutions did tend to move in the directions suggested by the recommendations of the Correy Report and that the modifications referred to by Coulter and Ingvarson above had become more integral to the 1986/7 programs than they had been in the earlier programs.The conclusions drawn by the CTEC/CSC Report are not sustained by our analysis. Programs tended to become more responsive to the government emphases and initiatives over the five year period covered by this study.

In summary, while it could be said that only one model of teacher education was obvious across the state, there were indications of alternative approaches in some of the individual programs. Both general education and professional studies were included in all programs, with at least 50% of total program hours in the Dip.Teach.now being spent on the professional areas. The practicum had become a more central part of the conceptualisation of some of the programs. However, all programs were still fragmented into a large number of discrete courses or units of study, though the number of discrete units had decreased slightly and integration was attempted in a number of ways. The Fourth Year programs in particular had changed over the five year period to become far more responsive to the changing needs of teachers.The 1986/7 programs covered a number of the areas noted as being of special interest by the Correy Report and other government reports. Most colleges had compulsory units in Arts, Computer Education, Literacy, Numeracy and Special Education and made specific reference to such issues in their rationale statements.

The primary teacher education programs had thus clearly responded to the major directions suggested by the recommendation of the Correy Report. The criticisms of the CTEC/CSC Report were too generalised and simplistic and ignored such detail as the widespread and specific response to the need for computer education in teacher education programs, an example of a very direct response to government recommendations. But certain issues of concern remain. The analysis of these primary teacher education programs raises again such issues as integration, across the curriculum initiatives, the theory/practice nexus, the role of the practicum, the relevance of courses in the foundations of education, the balance between personal and professional studies and the 3+E+1 model of primary teacher education.

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# 11.6.1 Mentor Teams: Peer Coaching and Collaboration in Preservice Training

## Introduction

When a beginning teacher enters the work force, he or she is often expected to work collaboratively and may be asked to engage in peer coaching activities. Having successfully completed a preservice training program does not mean that the beginning teacher will be able to work collaboratively with other professionals, nor does it mean that he or she will know how to analyze a lesson and provide meaningful feedback to a peer. If the teaching profession is enhanced by teachers who are able to engage in those activities (Joyce & Showers, 1982; Russell and Spafford, 1986; Garmston, 1987), then perhaps preservice training is a logical time for a teacher to begin engaging in collaboration and peer coaching.

## Purpose

It was the purpose of this study to determine if mentor teams, involving preservice teachers at the initial and final stages of their training, could mutually enhance their field experiences and alter the manner in which preservice teachers are socialized. The focus of this research was to tell the story about what happens in a mentor team. In addition, the more specific questions of what are the impacts and dynamics of mentor teams upon the participants were analyzed.

## Literature Review

A review of the literature indicated that isolation is a problem being perpetuated by the organization and practices of the schools as well as by teacher training field experiences. Although a question exists as to the importance of field-based training, most teachers rate those experiences as among the most valuable.

There are those educators who have called for a new orientation to the socialization of the beginning and preservice teachers. That orientation would include opportunities to engage in peer coaching, team planning, and other collaborative activities.

The mentor team concept, which is the focus of this study, is an attempt to address that literature by providing collegial rather than isolated field-experiences. The subjects for this study consisted of four preservice teachers enrolled in the University of Oregon's elementary education program: two in the beginning phase of that program (proteges) and two in the final quarter of student teaching (mentors). Each of the student teachers was placed in the same classroom with a beginning preservice teacher and expected to engage in peer coaching and collaborative lesson-planning.

## Current Policy

Current policy places a single student teacher in a classroom with a cooperating teacher. Despite the presence of that experienced teacher, the preservice teacher often experiences the feeling of seclusion. Student teachers are traditionally phased into their final term of field experience until they have full-time responsibility for planning and teaching. That process helps to socialize future teachers to work in isolation.

## Method

The primary research approach was participant observation. It was not a single method but a combination of observations, interviews, document analysis, and participation with self-analysis (McCall and Simmons, 1969; Bogdan and Biklen, 1982; and Lofland and Lofland, 1984). This study is considered "naturalistic" because the data were collected where the events took place and demanded active field involvement (Bogdan and Biklen, 1982, p. 3).

This study was best suited to participant observation in that it allowed the researcher to observe, as well as contribute to, the development of the mentor relationships. In addition, the researcher was able to assume varied and flexible roles while the participants in this study were engaged in a spectrum of events that included classroom teaching, peer coaching, and collaborative planning.

## Findings

The data collected during this study have been summarized under three major headings:

### Interpersonal Relationships

1. The preservice teachers participating in the mentor teams were socialized into the teaching profession in ways that were similar to and different from their peers in traditional programs.

2. Collegiality between the mentors and their proteges was observed by other members of the staff.

3. Two-person relationships lessened the initial anxiety of the proteges. In addition, the mentors reported their reliance on two-person relationships to ease the transition into their first year of teaching.

4. Preservice teachers who participated in the collaborative atmosphere of mentor teams continued to seek out collaborative interactions and positive reinforcement in the year that followed their participation.

### Skill Development

5. The student teachers developed skills as effective peer coaches.

6. The preservice teachers participating in this study became more reflective about their own teaching and developed what I believed to be a more accurate self-awareness.

7. Participation in a mentor team had primarily positive impacts on the instructional skills of the preservice teachers.

8. Students in those classrooms were positively impacted by the mentor teams.

### Field Experience Procedures

9. The roles of the mentors were varied and had both risks and benefits.

10. The student teachers were able to aid in the marking of the required competency books. That helped to relieve some of the burden from the cooperating teacher and supervisor while aiding the protege in the completion of the book.

11. The university supervisor's role was eased in the mentor team.

12. Applegate (1985) suggests that although teachers in general are willing to accept preservice teachers in their classroom, "they are often unsure about what to do" (p. 62). This study supports that suggestion.

13. Time was a concern for most participants of the mentor teams.

## Impact on Policy

The review of pertinent literature highlighted issues relating to isolation, collaboration, socialization, coaching, mentoring, and preservice field experiences. The findings of this study support and/or contradict several of those issues, as well as provide an alternative approach to dealing with problems related to preservice field experiences.

Whereas the literature pointed to the isolation of field experiences, the participants of this study did not experience isolation while participating in a mentor team. However, each of them expressed disillusionment with isolation in later field experiences as well as the first year of teaching.

The review of literature suggested that collaborative environments have the potential for promoting an increased commitment to one's profession as well as to better teaching. Participants in mentor teams indicated that collaboration was psychologically important in addition to being skill-enhancing. Mentor teams may be a cost-effective way to provide the preservice "professional interaction."

Several articles suggested that collaborative partnerships need to be fostered between colleges of teacher education and local school districts in order to enhance the development of preservice and inservice teachers. The mentor teams are a step in that direction. Both cooperating teachers indicated that they learned new techniques of data collection by observing the peer coaching techniques of their student teachers. In addition, rather than complaining about the poor quality of training at the university, they were impressed by how highly skilled the student teachers were in their roles as mentors. By placing student teachers in the field with skills in peer coaching and collaboration, the university is viewed in a favorable light by teachers in the public schools.

The mentor team concept impacts on many significant issues related to preservice and inservice training. The findings of this study suggest that mentor team field experiences during preservice training warrant serious consideration.

## II.b.2 Diverse Contexts in Teaching and Learning: Implications for Student Teaching Programs

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### Current Policy

One of the most important but least understood components of teacher training is student teaching and internship. Many researchers and practitioners identify the student teaching experience as the most important part of the training program, yet we know little about how to maximize learning in the student teaching setting. Educators question assumptions the usefulness of field experience (Berliner, 1985). University education professors and public school educators around the world work with new teachers as they make the transition from being student learners in a university classroom to being leaders of learning in their own classrooms. Despite contradictions in the research literature, early field experience remains the primary opportunity for the transfer of theoretical concepts to practical application and for identification and correction of teaching-learning problems.

The complex nature of the integration of theory and practice in a classroom full of children is obvious to anyone who has watched a new teacher struggle to become a professional. The first year of teaching has been identified by various researchers as being such an extreme experience as to cause "culture shock" (Lanier & Little, 1985; Lortie, 1975). This challenging apprenticeship seems to be unequaled in other professions, perhaps because the factors which influence the new teacher's learning are so difficult to articulate. The structure of teacher training coursework at the university and "objective" teacher evaluation in the field assumes that all educators can recognize good teaching, it assumes that most people agree about what good teaching is, and that technically good teaching can be learned as theory at the university and implemented as practice in the field. Those assumptions are understandable, if not well-founded.

The existing knowledge base about student teaching is contradictory; researchers of teacher learning are not in agreement about acquisition of knowledge, the value of field practice, and its contribution to effective teaching. In fact, we know very little about the effect personal history, professional interactions of teacher educators (cooperating teachers and university supervisors), and colleagues in the field have on student teachers (Zeichner & Tabachnick, 1985). My study examined the role of reflective dialogue between new teachers and teacher educators in the process of new teacher learning, asking the question: "How does a new teacher learn to teach?" The key to assumptions about teacher learning and the contradictions in the literature are embedded in the method and interpretation of this critical question.

## Method

I conducted a yearlong ethnographic study documenting and interpreting new teacher learning. Teachers participating in an induction year Master's degree program were chosen for this study. The Resident Teacher Master's Degree Program is a first-year internship program which leads to a Master's degree in Curriculum and Instruction. Certified teachers with complete classroom responsibilities participate in structured coursework, weekly seminars, and intense supervision. Summer preparatory work in foundations of teaching and learning, developing classroom environment, and scope and sequence of instruction is followed by support coursework and supervision throughout the year. Formal coursework includes training in classroom management, instructional techniques, and integration of curriculum. During the second summer, students complete electives in curriculum development, multicultural education, and research.

Throughout their first year, five teachers reflected on their induction experiences during supervisory conferences, at collegial weekly meetings, and during open-ended interviews. Using interpretive methods, including participant observation, interviews, and journalizing, the perspectives of the new practitioners on their learning were documented. Qualitative research methods allowed me to ask the same important question, "How do new teachers learn to teach?" in many different ways. I expected to identify factors which were supportive or prohibitive to development of effective teachers. Even with the intent of identifying external factors which influenced teacher learning, it became evident in this study that singulare, isolated factors were not explicit.

## Findings

The role of the teacher as "transmitter of culture" (Spindler, 1973) is highly demanding and places a tremendous burden on the new practitioner to identify personal beliefs as well as beliefs of other members of the community. Through dialogue and collegial interaction, several levels of knowing emerged. The integration of theory and practice, teaching and learning, leads to knowledge. Initially, new teachers established a personal and professional identity, thus taking responsibility for their new roles within society. Intense self-assessment occurred within the context of student and collegial interactions; this changing landscape required the new teachers to participate both as individual learners and to contribute to the learning of others.

New teachers learned about themselves as teachers primarily from their relationships with other people. The human relationships which contextualized the teaching process for these new teachers played a major role in their learning. These relationships were evident as they contributed to the diverse beliefs and abilities brought to the profession, the ways in which new teachers related to the teaching-learning process, and to how new teacher attitudes were shaped by diverse teaching settings. It became evident that these relationships included non-teacher educators. The new teachers understood their roles as teachers from earlier childhood experiences, from relationships with adult role models, from school site colleagues, and from community members. Teaching and supervision by university professors and supervisors were important aspects of teacher learning, but were juxtaposed with other relationships or sources of learning. I concluded that it is through interaction and dialogue with many others in multiple settings that new practitioners contextualize their own teaching and learning, and subsequently develop a "teacher self."

The relational, interactive process of new teacher learning was open-ended. It began long before teachers entered the classroom, took place on multiple levels within and without the school setting, and continued on personal and professional levels after training was completed. The experiences of these five teachers clearly suggest that the best learning is facilitated rather than controlled, implicate rather than mechanistic. Factors which influence teacher learning are not simply and primarily rational and specific. Learning to teach is a complex, demanding, and ongoing livelihood which continues to challenge inexperienced and mature practitioners alike.

## Recommendations

There are several recommendations for the improvement of teacher training from this study:

1) The teacher training program must be highly interactive on personal and professional levels.

New teachers understand their roles as educators and their specific perspectives as human beings from the context in which they practice teaching. Whether in pre-service practica, student teaching, or first-year teaching settings, teachers learn about teaching within diverse contexts. Acknowledgement of the power of this dynamic process has implications for teacher educators at the university and in the field; university supervisors must participate in schools and school personnel must contribute to the university.

2) New practitioners must be provided continuous and diverse opportunities to interact with colleagues in a "safe setting."

Formative evaluation throughout pre-service teaching is critical to student teacher learning. While most student teaching assignments appear structurally similar (full-time work under a cooperating teacher with increasing responsibilities) the professional and personal interactions which contextualize this experience have a negative or positive direct influence on the quality of learning (Carroll, 1988). New learners must know that they can expose mistakes and insecurities to their supervisors and receive guidance and support. They must feel free to experiment with application of new theoretical ideas to the new practice setting without fear of condemnation or exposure.

The university supervisor and cooperating teacher (those most directly in contact with the student teacher) must provide formative evaluation and structured reflective time in a safe setting. New practitioners must be provided multiple and diverse opportunities to interact with colleagues and prompted to share in dialogue. The question is not merely providing theoretical foundations or field experiences, but time and support for reflection and self-assessment within those settings.

3) Faculty and cooperating teachers must be skilled in reflective practice.

Reflective practice can be structured into formal coursework and field experiences (Wilkes, 1988). Reflection on the teaching-learning process must be nurtured, encouraged, and expected across the educational community. The skills and valuing of dialogue must be taught to faculty members and on-site personnel along with pre-service teachers. Relationships provide the teacher-learner with a context for learning and they must be acknowledged and validated from the onset of teacher training. Teacher educators must therefore engage in dialogue with their colleagues in similar and diverse educational settings. Dialogue between faculty and public school teacher educators will not only provide a professional model for student teachers, it will contribute to improved communication between university and school personnel. The structuring of student teaching must include modeling of collegial interaction and extensive formative evaluation.

4) Non-teaching personnel influence new teacher learning.

Teacher educators must acknowledge the influence of non-teacher educators in new teacher learning. University pre-service courses should include the study of social contexts of learning, beginning with the participants' own experiences. On the school site, student teachers can be made aware of the diverse and often tacit influence of administrators, peer teachers, classified personnel, parents, and members of the community. Inclusion of diverse members of the educational community in staff development programs, and classroom activities, and in development of curricula on an explicit level will assist new practitioners in comprehension of the complex interactions within a school.

5) Structured learning opportunities must continue beyond the pre-service experience.

As public school staff development is re-examined with attention to new teacher induction, experienced teachers are pressed into service as mentors and asked to provide leadership in teacher learning. Both new teachers and veterans will benefit from structured reflective practice, as all teachers continue to mature personally and professionally throughout their careers. New practitioners will only benefit from more experienced colleagues if they are able to interact with them and share in dialogue.

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11.6.3

# SUPERVISING ADULT STUDENT TEACHERS: THE POLICY AND THE PRACTICE

One of the most significant national trends associated with college undergraduates, over the last decade, has been the emergence of the adult student.[1] Brendon (1985) reported that in 1978, 37.5 percent of the total national undergraduate college population were adult students, and projected that figure would rise to 47 percent in 1990. In the Winter quarter 1988, however, over 60 percent of the students admitted to the elementary education program at the University of Oregon were adult students. They were full time students and their average age was 32 (Carroll, 1988).

In response to three national reports (A Nation At Risk, A Nation Prepared, and Tomorrow's Teachers) calling for higher standards of teacher preparation, many colleges are now considering extending the teacher preparation program to a fifth year. Under this program, elementary teachers would graduate with a Masters in Education, but one ramification of the extended program would be to increase the average age of graduating student. The factor of age is also significant with respect to teacher education programs which, historically, have served a younger and more homogeneous age group.

There are two major elements of experience in all teacher preparation programs: educational methods and foundations courses conducted on the university campus, and field experiences conducted in public school classrooms. While the literature accounts for the learning characteristics and needs of adult students (Knowles (1984), Gorham (1985), Holtzclaw (1985)), there is lacking a body of knowledge concerning the supervision of adult students teachers.

In 1987-88, I conducted a study specifically addressing the supervision of adult student teachers. The purpose of the study was to determine if the process of supervision for adult student teachers differs from a college supervision policy and, if so, describe the differences and the factors which appeared to contribute to those differences.

## The Research

This study examined in detail the supervision policy, adult students, supervisors of adult students, and the supervision process. The methodology included: using policy statements concerning supervision, observing the supervision process, administering questionnaires and conducting interviews with adult students, supervisors and faculty.

The questionnaires sought to establish: knowledge of the supervision policy, the perception of the supervision process, and the affect of the supervision process on the student and the supervisor.

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[1] The term adult student has been selected from a range of terms used in the literature to describe the student who is at least 25 years.

The observation of the supervision process included recording all dialogue between the supervisor and the student teacher on several occasion during a field experience. Each supervisor and student teacher involved in the observation was also interviewed. The interview sought to confirm, enlighten and elaborate on findings from the questionnaire and observation.

### The Elementary Program

The Division of Teacher Education (DTE), at the University of Oregon, administers the elementary teacher program, also known as the Training Elementary Educators for Mainstreaming (TEEM) Program. The TEEM program commenced January 1, 1980 and was designed to combine studies in teaching methodology and learning theory with field experience.

The TEEM program requires the student teachers to be registered as full time students for four terms: TEEM I, TEEM II, Professional Block, and Student Teaching. During TEEM I, TEEM II, and Student Teaching, student teachers are required to complete more than 800 hours of practica in public schools.

During the first two quarters of practica (TEEM I and TEEM II), the student teacher is at a school from 8.00 a.m. to noon five days a week. The remainder of the day is spent in university course work. The final field experience (Student Teaching) runs daily from 8.00 a.m. to 4.00 p.m. on the school site with five, two hour, evening seminars at the university.

The field experience program is competency based and designed to incorporate studies in teaching methodology and learning theory. Supervision of student teachers during the field experience is conducted by people from the Division of Teacher Education. Professors, Graduate Teaching Fellows (GTF's), and liaison personnel from two school districts work as supervisors.

An induction program prior to the Fall quarter, and regular meetings during each quarter, provide a forum to teach supervisors and monitor the supervision process. Additionally, many GTF's and liaison personnel take course work in supervisory techniques through the Division of Teacher Education.

### The Findings

The findings can be placed into three categories: supervision policy and practice, the adult student, and the supervision process.

#### Supervision policy and practice

The college supervision policy states that the supervision process should employ clinical supervision techniques, i.e., there should be a planning conference, a classroom observation (where the supervisor takes data for objective evaluation), and a feedback conference. The questionnaire revealed the pre-conference, observation and post-conference process was expected by all respondents. The field studies also showed supervisors were consistent in employing and applying clinical supervision techniques. The complementary nature of expected supervisory behavior and actual supervision practice facilitated roles and relationships for both the student and the supervisor.

Within the pre- and post-conferences, I found the sequencing of questions, the use of a common terminology and the constant attention to specific technical aspects associated with teaching, ensured a uniformity and maintained a consistency of supervision standards across school sites and teaching situations. To a certain extent the uniformity in supervision process could be attributed to the structure of the "Post Conference Worksheet", a document supervisors complete during each observation.

Beyond that, however, this finding raised questions concerning how the supervision process came to be so consistent, and what structures enhance or detract from maintaining the uniformity and standards.

### Adult students

The study found that most adult students bring to the student teaching situation a far more complex set of personal issues than the traditional student teacher. The adult student may have responsibilities for children, families, and older parents. Many have time and financial constraints, most set for themselves high academic standards and expectations, and all are making a significant personal commitment. The adult student also brings life experience and skills to the teaching situation. They are not naive in interpersonal relationships, they appreciate the politics of being a student, but most of all, they are determined to succeed.

The adult student's high personal expectation, concern for their abilities and practicum requirements, generate anxiety and stress. They also bring, however, an enthusiasm, eagerness and ardent interest in teaching. As a result of these characteristics, I found adult student teachers questionning procedures, seeking clarification of expectations, and requiring accountability. These factors do influence the supervision process.

### Supervision process

Through the questionnaire, adult student teachers indicated the supervision process was stimulating, satisfying, supportive and of assistance. Furthermore, they described the relationship with their supervisor as personal, exciting, vital and encouraging. The supervisor was seen to be concerned and one that could be trusted. While it is encouraging to describe the supervision process in such terms, it is more important to understand how the process of supervision contributes to such a satisfying and personal affinity.

The field study revealed supervisors exhibit a concern and understanding for personal, family, or situational factors imposing upon the adult student teachers. This was highlighted by the variety of ways supervisors would respond to adult student teachers' remarks. By confirming an understanding of the problems in the class, recalling a similar experience, admitting to a similar difficulty, or sharing an incident in a light hearted fashion, the supervisor was facilitating a collegial relationship (Wilkes, 1988).

At the most fundamental level, collegial relationships could be seen developing in the patterns of greetings and in the common sharing of the field experience. Beyond that level, however, relationships had greater potential. Where a adult student teacher related a personal or professional concern to the supervisor, the supervisor's response were identified as:

acknowledgement, acknowledgement and passive concern, and acknowledgement and direction for resolution.

Where the supervisor opted to give the adult student teacher direction to resolve a concern, the supervisor empowered the student. The empowerment occurs because the technical process of supervision is modified to suit the situation, and adult student teachers learnt about themselves from the situation and supervisor/supervisee relationship (Collay, 1987). It must be noted, however, that not all supervisors displayed the ability to accommodate the adult student's concern.

From this study, several important questions have emerged:

1. What catalysts catapult supervisors beyond the boundary of technical efficacy?

2. What are the characteristics of supervisors who respond to adult students needs by empowering them?

3. Can supervisors be taught the process of identifying when to respond to adult students needs, and how to accommodate the adult students needs?

Knowing that there are factors influencing a supervisor to move beyond the technical process is important, but further research is required to extend our understanding of all the elements involved.

### Recommendations

The findings of this study support the following recommendations:

1. The procedures and criteria currently used to select supervisors are effective.

2. Liaison supervisors are effective and positively influence the supervision process.

3. Provision for the training of supervisors should be at least maintained, and consideration be given to include adult education, and inter-personal relations.

4. Adult student teachers are demanding on supervisors time and resources. College policy concerning supervisor/supervisee ratios should encourage the opportunity for reflection and dialogue.

5. Cooperating teachers require exposure to the issues associated with supervising adult student teachers, adult education and inter-personal relations.

6. Further research is required to develop a greater understanding of the process by which supervisors empower the adult student teacher.

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11.6.4

# One State Responds to the National Directives: Implementing Instructional Improvements in a Politicized Context

## Introduction

The United States, like many other countries, has entered a period of critical reappraisal of public education. The last decade has brought books, studies and reports with titles like A Nation At Risk, A Nation Prepared, Tomorrow's Teachers, Cultural Literacy, and The Closing of the American Mind (National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1983; Carnegie Forum on Education and Economy, 1986; Holmes Group, 1986; Hirsch, 1987; Bloom, 1987). They have called into question the quality and efficiency of the entire public educational system of the country. Consensus about which change should occur is rare. In fact, the only complete agreement appears to be on the need for change, not on which changes are needed.

In June of 1987, the Oregon State System of Higher Education (OSSHE) mandated that all public colleges and universities in the state eliminate undergraduate majors in education, and that all teacher training be shifted to "fifth year" graduate level programs. The state teacher certifying agency, the Teacher Standards and Practices Commission (TSPC), subsequently issued detailed competency requirements for the new graduates and for the new programs in December 1987. These new mandates reflected many of the most often heard critical refrains of the national reports. The two state mandates did not agree with each other. They also threw into question previously negotiated agreements about the relationship of the two boards to each other, to the training institutions, and to Oregon's new teacher graduates.

## Method

In this paper, I will review the actions which have followed these events, with particular attention to the attempts of one university program to implement instructional improvements in student teaching experiences while meeting conflicting and changing external requirements. I will show how other programs, states and provinces can use the Oregon experience to increase understanding of the opportunities and pitfalls in implementing instructional improvements in an atmosphere of highly charged political rhetoric.

I have chosen the issues around student teaching to demonstrate how a complex political agenda can interact with a different but equally complex area of attempted educational improvement at the program level. I will describe the particular problems presented to program faculty when they tried to use new research findings to change student teaching requirements within the new mandates.

## Findings

This state experience is typical in many ways of what other nations and states face in implementing change. Three national reports served as the primary catalysts in promoting reform of teacher education programs in the nation and in Oregon: A Nation At Risk, A Nation Prepared, and Tomorrow's Teachers. The National Commission on Excellence in Education released its report, A Nation at Risk: The Imperative for Educational Reform, in the spring of 1983. The authors of the report to Secretary of Education Bell drew a grim picture of a society allowing its educational foundations to crumble. The phrase "rising tide of mediocrity" became a call to reform, and the report concluded that while excellence in education costs, "in the long run, mediocrity costs far more." (p. 16) Specific recommendations concerning teachers included attracting more academically able students to teaching, "improving teacher preparation programs," increasing salaries, extending teacher contracts to eleven month contracts, developing career ladders for teachers, employing a "substantial number" of nonschool people to help teachers, and involving master teachers in designing teacher preparation programs and in supervising teachers during induction years.

Oregon program and agency participants generally cheered the report and the recommended changes. When individual Oregon programs were held next to the Nation at Risk template by faculty, most programs were found to already be meeting the identified needs. Master teachers, recent graduates, and other school people were actively involved in designing and supervising programs. Oregon's salaries for new teachers were among the best in the nation. Generally, program faculty thought that we looked "pretty good." We thought that we could move from this national set of criticisms back to our ongoing statewide discussions on improving an "already good system." This proved overly optimistic, for others in the state did not share the faculty viewpoint.

The second influential report was issued by the Carnegie Forum on Education and the Economy, a privately funded policy analysis group. A Nation Prepared. Teachers for the 21st Century linked educational reform to changes in the teaching profession and called for radical changes. They called for a national board for professional teaching standards, radically revised professional training, restructured schools, a bachelor's degree in the arts or sciences as a prerequisite for professional study of teaching, movement of all teacher training to graduate level programs, increased national resources for preparation of minority candidates for teaching and increased resources for classroom teachers. The committee did not specify how these recommendations would be accomplished, but left specific interpretations to professional program faculty working in collaboration with school professionals.

Oregon professionals began to openly disagree about whether Oregon's programs were "OK" under the template of this new national criticism. The 1986 Holmes Group report, Tomorrow's Teachers: A Report of the Holmes Group, added to the argument. The University of Oregon, for example, as a founding member of the elite group, argued that radical change was indeed needed but that the changes must also include extended university-based training and improved working conditions for both faculty and teachers. The Holmes report stated that university administrators and professors had to join with teacher organizations, state and local governments, and schools to reshape schools if real improvements in the teaching profession were to occur. Many others in Oregon disagreed with these conclusions, arguing that university-based training was, in fact, at the heart of the problem and should be eliminated.

While this divisive political agenda was being engaged, new and exciting evidence on how to improve student teaching emerged. Collay's study of the University of Oregon resident master's-level program showed program faculty where studentteaching could be improved(Collay, 1987). Wilkes' study gave new evidence of the strength of peer coaching teams within the student teaching framework and the program faculty moved to include those findings in the design of the whole training program (Wilkes, 1988). Carroll's study of student teaching issues for older-than-average students gave the program designers additional new insights into the teaching and learning opportunities present when university faculty, cooperating teachers, and student teachers come together to discuss classroom experiences (Carroll, 1988). Program faculty added a component of training of faculty, cooperating teachers, and supervisors of student teachers to the new program design discussions.

The overall impact of adding the new findings on practice activities to program planning was to expand "practice" as a component was designed to run parallel to all theory and methods work. Since the new training program was to occur after completion of a subject-based undergraduate degree, we assumed that subject content work was already completed, and concentrated College of Education efforts on increasing the interactions between students and faculty around the mix of theory, methods and practice.

One of the primary common findings of the three research studies was the need to create and maintain an affective learning environment where "mistakes" could be made by student teachers, cooperating teachers and faculty without fear of punishment and with the ability to "problem-solve" identified problems together. Program faculty created designs which included a fairly good guarantee to all participants (students and teachers) of ready, supportive coaching on more successful approaches to a problem by people who participants knew to be capable teachers themselves.

The new designs increased personal and real costs substantially, since they greatly increased interactions between all of the actors in the student teaching setting and in related discussion seminars. This proved to have considerable political liability and brought into sharp contrast the differences between the demands of true instructional improvement and the demands of the political context in which that improvement was being made.

In my report, I will summarize the findings of the three research studies (which have also each been submitted to ICET as separate papers), and will discuss the ways in which the program faculty worked with state agencies and school groups to ameliorize political and program differences in order to incorporate better instructional processes. Oregon's programs were generally already highly rated before the demands for change and therefore problems with change cannot be attributed solely to initial poor programs or to lack of experience in discussion of alternatives. I believe that the experiences in this state have considerable applicability to other settings looking at new designs for teacher education, whether that dialogue is at the statelevel, or at the program level, or both. Recommendations will be given on potential effective and ineffective responses to managing a set of complex political and educational issues in a program design framework.

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# 11.6.5 "Cloud Sheets and Sunny Days": A Model for Formative Supervision of Student Teachers

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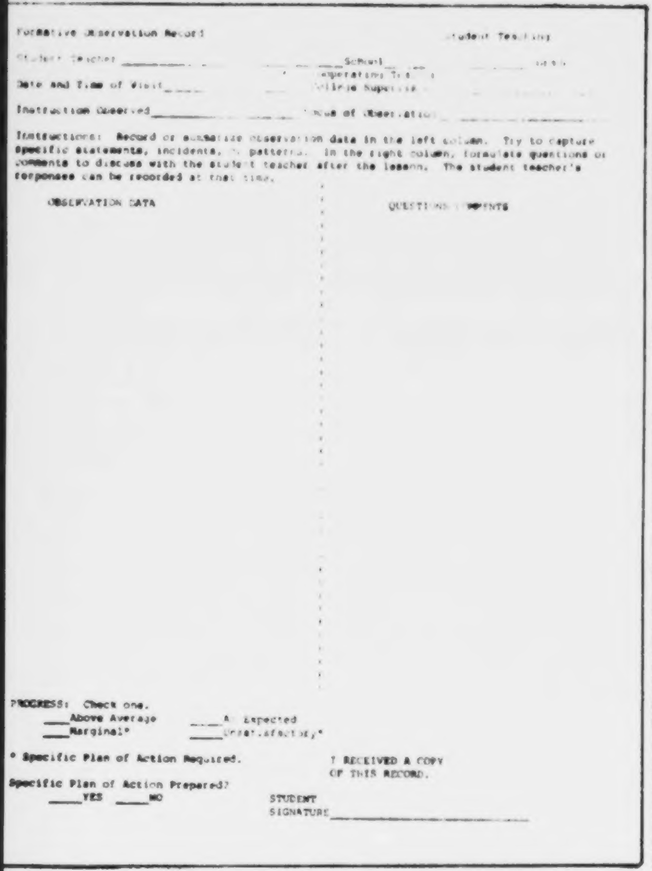
Following revision of its program outcomes in 1985, Southern Oregon State established a research team to align supervision of full-day elementary student teachers as closely as possible with its revised program outcomes. The team included two education faculty, the elementary coordinator, and a teacher from the public schools. The team used the specific planning, implementing, evaluating, and personal characteristics expected of our graduates as listed in the program outcomes as a basis for examining all aspects of our supervision process.

Data were gathered from classroom teachers, college supervisors, student teachers, and administrators by means of questionnaires and college-hosted discussion meetings. A summary of the results indicated that to strengthen our supervision process we needed to maximize use of the supervisory skills of classroom teachers, increase the opportunities for student teachers to develop self-analysis skills, and enhance three-way communication practices among classroom teachers, student teachers, and college supervisors.

In Spring term, 1985, the team implemented a pilot project for a formative evaluation process of supervision rather than a summative one. Formative evaluation views supervision as a process which focusses on and encourages personal growth in contrast to a summative evaluation process, which focusses on judging the quality of what is produced (Darling-Hammond, Wise, Pease, 1983). First the team called together a representative group of classroom teachers from each of the local school districts in which our student teachers are placed. The group brainstormed ways to help student teachers achieve self-sufficiency. Using ideas from the group, the team designed formative evaluation forms to be used by classroom teachers as well as by college supervisors (Figure 1) and reaction forms, which came to be known as "cloud" sheets or "bubble" sheets, to be used by the student teachers (Figure 2). The focus during the student-teaching evaluation process was to be on individual growth. Each student was to be taken from what we called the "go point" of a student teacher to as far into the "go point" of a beginning teacher as individual differences would allow. As the project moved through the academic year, quarterly meetings were held with classroom teachers, college supervisors, and student teachers to help clarify expectations. Also, at mid-term and final evaluation times each term, student teachers completed self-report evaluations on and met as a group of three with the college supervisor and the classroom teacher for informal discussion.



Formative Observation Record

Student Teaching

Student Teacher ____________________ School ____________ Grade

Cooperating Teacher

Date and Time of Visit ____________ College Supervisor

Instruction Observed ____________ Focus of Observation ____________

Instructions: Record or summarize observation data in the left column. Try to capture specific statements, incidents, or patterns. In the right column, formulate questions or comments to discuss with the student teacher after the lesson. The student teacher's responses can be recorded at that time.

| OBSERVATION DATA | QUESTIONS COMMENTS |
|---|---|

PROGRESS: Check one.

____Above Average ____As Expected

____Marginal* ____Unsatisfactory*

* Specific Plan of Action Required.

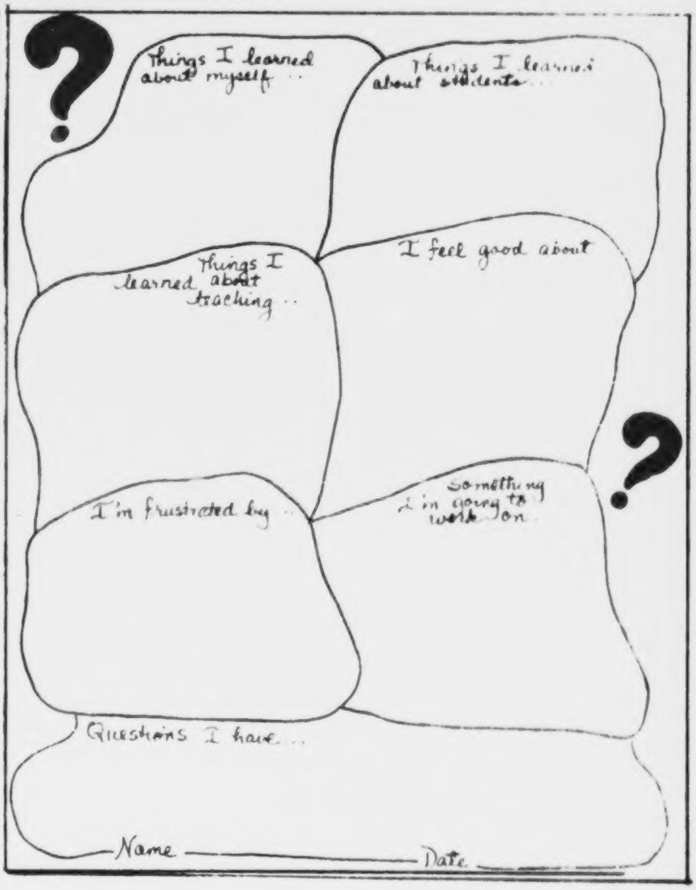
Specific Plan of Action Prepared?

____YES ____NO

I RECEIVED A COPY OF THIS RECORD.

STUDENT SIGNATURE____________________

IGURE 1. Forms (in triplicate) used by college supervisors and classroom teachers for formative evaluation of student teachers



Things I learned about myself ...

Things I learned about students ...

Things I learned about teaching ...

I feel good about

I'm frustrated by ...

Something I'm going to work on

Questions I have ...

Name ____________ Date ____________

FIGURE 2. Reaction sheets (in triplicate) used by student teachers for self evaluation

The pilot project originally included two of our college supervisors, twelve classroom teachers, and twelve student teachers. These numbers were to expand each term so that 50% of our elementary student teachers were participating by the end of the year. However the triplicate evaluation forms proved so popular that, by the time we reported our first results to the state in May 1986, the popularity of the triplicate evaluation and

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reaction forms had contaminated our control group. Questionnaire results at the end of the year showed our student teachers, classroom teachers, and college supervisors so enthusiastic that the system of formative supervision was adopted Fall quarter 1986, for the supervision of our entire elementary program.

Southern Oregon State has established an ongoing process for improvement of the three-way evaluation process involving student teachers, classroom teachers, and college supervisors as equal partners. Furthermore, our data now yield strong evidence that we have helped create decision-makers who can move smoothly from being a student to being a teacher. In summary, this project has given us 1) a process that includes student teachers as true partners in their own evaluation; 2) formative observation forms (Figure 1) that ask questions to invite self-assessment of strengths and weaknesses; and, 3) student-reaction forms called cloud sheets (Figure 2) that invite internalization of learning through metacognition. All in all, our supervision program is having sunny days.

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## II.8 SYMPOSIUM: THE GREEN/WHITE PAPER

Organiser: Len Cairns, Gippsland Institute

Speakers: Barry Sheahan, Melbourne C.A.E.
Mike Koder, Sydney C.A.E.
Cliff Turney, Sydney University
Geoff Beeson, Victoria College

This symposium aims to examine the Green (and if out the White Paper) proposal on how they affect or will affect Teacher Education in Australia.

Depending on the "state of the game" in July this Symposium will be topical and raise vital issues for institutions and the profession.

Janet Boden

Catholic C.A.E. Sydney

# 117 EDUCATION AND ENTREPRENEURSHIP: SOME ORGANISATIONAL IMPLICATIONS

Increasing attention is being given to the need for tertiary education institutions to become more responsive, innovative, and entrepreneurial, especially since the release of the Green Paper on Higher Education (Dawkins, 1987). These same organisational attributes also have been the subject of considerable interest in recent business management literature and practice.

This paper explores how organisations might promote such characteristics, both from a theoretical perspective and in terms of a case study - the development, over the past four years, of two college based nursing courses.

## *LITERATURE MODEL*

Several means by which these organisational characteristics may be promoted were identified in a review of recent management literature. Five approaches which enhance the effectiveness of organisations and facilitate their capacity to adapt quickly to change and to turn potential threats into opportunities, will be discussed here.

### *i. Teams*

Use of teams has a number of advantages in organisations like the colleges where teams already exist and where staff such as lecturers and tutors, who necessarily should have high levels of responsibility and independence, are involved. Preserving and developing employees' autonomy is directly related to team building. Weisbord (1985:29) states that openness and feedback were responsible for team results. Business staff in teams felt more influential, involved, part of the action and motivated to excel. Even the bosses were more secure and trusting of subordinates. Furthermore, Lanza (1985:47) showed that team appraisal by the group resulted in higher morale and better productivity in business.

Even though research shows employees' morale and productivity increase through team participation, some managers have been shown to be still uncomfortable with the team approach because it may necessitate a change in their leadership style. Managers should "coach" the team, review its decisions and provide feedback to assist rather than direct (Barkman 1987:61). Importantly, and sometimes difficultly for traditional managers, if the team approach is to have any meaning, managers have to be prepared to live with many of the team's decisions.

### *ii. Improved communications - networking*

The importance of free flowing communication in all directions is stressed generally (Blau & Scott, 1970:242-247) and specifically in educational settings (Likert, cited in Owens, 1979:156). Naisbitt's concept of networking adds an extra, practical dimension to this. Naisbitt (1984:192) defines networks as: "people talking to each other, sharing ideas, information and resources." He considers that the process of getting there - the communication that creates the linkages between people and clusters of people - is the important part of networking.

It is interesting to note that networking also works to break down any artificial barriers between teams. Communication linkages are established on the basis that work will benefit from the free interchange of information, not on the basis of formal organisational structures, especially hierarchical ones, which are known to inhibit communication (Likert, cited in Hanson, 1979:102-103 and Blau and Scott, 1970:242-243).

### *iii. Increased support for democratic, participative management values*

Likert (cited in Owens, 1980:205) and Naisbitt and Aburdene (cited in Halperin, 1987:4) state that participative, democratic management approaches lead to higher organisational performance. Brown (1987 i:6 and ii:6) argues that another important ingredient for organisational effectiveness, especially in today's environment, is that the leader's actions should coincide with his/her espoused values and that there should be agreement within the organisation between the staff's management values and the leader's management values. Without such compatibility of values an organisation is likely to experience difficulty in attaining realistic goals.

It is the leader's role in such an environment to facilitate employees' achieving their goals (see Blau and Scott, 1970:242-247) by encouraging:

i. training workshops and seminars;

ii. employee investment (both monetary and motivational) in the organisation; and

iii. the development of extensive networks for free communication flow. (Naisbitt, cited in Halperin, 1987:11)

Similarly, according to Naisbitt and Aburdene, managers should encourage positive human values such as empathy and nurturance and should influence decision making and negotiations by creating "win/win" (as opposed to "win/lose") situations to increase organisational performance.

### *iv. Increasing staff motivation and "ownership" of the programs and their goals*

Naisbitt's whole approach to increasing organisational performance, including becoming more goal directed and purposeful, pivots on leaders creating organisational environments in which staff will be highly motivated, highly creative, entrepreneurial and highly committed towards achieving goals which they subscribe to or "own". In his approach, which is heavily business oriented, "ownership" is encouraged literally through company investment, purchase of shares etc, and metaphorically through the challenge of high creativity and self direction and through bonuses, incentives etc. (Naisbitt and Aburdene, cited in Halperin, 1987:11) Martin and Magnus (1986:66,68) support the effectiveness of such rewards in increasing staff morale, loyalty and productivity.

### *v. Enhanced staff autonomy, creativity and self actualisation*

Fully harnessing the resources of staff is a critical task for all organisations if they are to perform effectively. It is even more vital in college settings where, in large measure, the organisational products -

trained, competent nurses, in our case - result from the transfer of knowledge and skills from staff to students.

Encouraging staff to feel and to be autonomous, to use their initiative and to be creative are seen as critical ingredients to organisational effectiveness by many authors (Rammuto, cited in Keeley, 1984:22-23; Likert, cited in Owens, 1979:156 and Scott and Blau, 1970:242-247). They are of central importance in Naisbitt and Aburdene's (cited in Halperin, 1987:5) entrepreneurial model for success of modern corporations. De Chambeau and Mackenzie (1986:40-43) in discussing the importance of intrapreneurs - "intrapreneurs are entrepreneurs who stay home" - make the same points.

Whilst many of these authors are essentially equating achievement of organisational goals with profit, there seems no reason why the same principles may not be applied to achieving other, perhaps much more complex, organisational goals like producing competent nursing professionals. Certainly their emphasis on developing staff, encouraging their autonomy and self actualisation is shared by Argyris and Schon (1974:157) as an integral part of their approach to the education of professionals.

### *CASE STUDY*

An examination of the development of two college based nursing courses revealed some significant divergencies from the above approaches and several associated problems.

### *i. organisation structures*

With relatively small staff establishments, both places use hierarchical structures. At "A" there is one department with a head who communicates downwards to 3 team coordinators, appointed or reappointed each semester by the head. The services and staff of other schools/departments are used for specialist areas such as biological sciences, politics and communications. At "B", a divisional head controls the heads of nursing science and nursing studies departments, a program coordinator and a clinical coordinator.

Although classical management theory suggests that coordination problems are well solved through the single hierarchical structure, both places experience such problems, partly due to structural issues. Using Blau and Scott's terms (cited in Hanson, 1979:47) both colleges have "interdependent" departments, requiring close coordination because they are involved in producing the same product - in this case competent, educated, first level nursing practitioners. In "A", however, there are several departments involved, only one of which is responsible to the head of nursing, whereas at "B", both departments are the head's responsibility.

### *ii. team composition and responsibilities*

Both places use teams of about 5 to 8 members in the preparation of objectives for lectures, tutorials and clinical settings; organisation and evaluation of lecture guides and tutorials; and the conduct of lectures, tutorials and clinical sessions. At "A" there are six teams, three of which conduct the nursing studies unit for each semester, whilst "B" runs similar sized teams to teach different aspects of nursing (eg medical/surgical and developmental disability) within each of the three year teams.

The team approach adopted by both programs bears some resemblance to the Matrix Organisational Design, which is "intended to maximise the strengths of bureaucratic, hierarchical structures, while purging them of many of their inherent weaknesses" (cited in Hanson, 1979:48-49). Even if the matrix approach makes organisational sense, however, it is, according to Hanson (1979:51) difficult to manage.

### *iii. communication processes*

Although both colleges used teams,the way in which those teams related to management differed significantly. At "A" the wheel approach was used, with the head as the centre or hub and the coordinators and team members as the spokes (Bavelas, cited in Robbins, 1976:402). Robbins also stresses the wheel represents a very formal communication network, which, though effective for job performance, lends itself to an autocratic structure. In practice, as all teams were directed by the head, through their coordinators, there was little effective interaction across teams and thus integration of subject matter was problematic.

At "B", on the other hand, in Robbins' terms (1976:401), a circle network at least partially exists, with the head of the division, the two department heads and the two coordinators and *some* team coordinators meeting regularly. Although there was greater and easier interaction within teams, cross communication between teams to achieve subject integration was still problematic, because insufficient attention was given to the needs of the team members to be included in such discussions.

## *SUMMARY CONCLUSION*

The case study reinforces the literature findings that colleges need to improve organisation structures and communication processes if they are to meet the challenges of our rapidly changing environment. The recommended approach is based on promoting free flowing communication which leads to problem solving, freedom to follow professional judgement and conditions to increase initiative in promoting organisational effectiveness. Key ingredients are:

i. leaders trust and have confidence in employees;

ii. the full range of employees' motivational forces are tapped and training resources are abundant, promoting favourable "ownership" attitudes towards the organisation;

iii. communication is complete and flows freely in all directions;

iv. decentralised, democratic decision making exists and subordinates influence outcomes in the team approach; and

v. control is spread with self control and staff autonomy being emphasised.

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## 11.9 Arts Is Basic Learning

Teachers, through their interaction with children, provide the catalyst for congnitive, physical, social, emotional, and aesthetic development. By carefully matching learning experiences to the strengths and needs of individuals, effective programs are established and implemented in classrooms that cater for all areas of development.

This idea is widely accepted among educators, but given the general school curriculum, particularly at a time when popular public opinion advocates a return to the "3-R's", at the expense of what is often seen as the "frills" of education, it is essential that the role of arts in education be recognised. Arts education should be valued not only for its contribution to the child's creative development, but also its role in the general development of the child. A systematic and developmental arts program provides children with many opportunities to develop and refine a wide range of effective learning strategies.

In Tasmania, the Education Department supports a longstanding commitment to the arts by extending and maintaining support to schools in all arts areas. Through a network of advisory services, professional development programs and subject guidelines, teachers are encouraged to trial and implement new programs and ideas in their classrooms. In this way strategies are developed for classroom practices which allow the generalist teacher to work competently and confidently in arts education, using the subject guidelines as a framework. Since 1985 funding allocation for arts education has steadily increased as research projects have produced firm evidence that daily arts experiences not only develop communication skills (listening, speaking, thinking, feeling and valuing) but also contribute to fundamental skills which allow for improved learning in the areas of literacy and numeracy.

One such project, funded through the Basic Learning in Primary Schools (B.L.I.P.S.) Program in the Northern Region of Tasmania during 1985, involved 250 children, 10 teachers (K-3) four regional arts advisors and the senior staff of the school. The teachers participated in a series of workshops in drama, visual arts, expressive language, movement and music. Between these workshops the ideas and strategies developed were trialled in the classrooms.

The major aims of the program were to develop teacher's understanding of a learning process underlying the arts, and to introduce them to a range of strategies for implementing an ongoing classroom arts program. A further aim was to investigate the impact of an intensive arts program on children's basic learning.

The teachers were unanimous in their support for the model of teacher development on which the program was based. After less than 10 week's experience, all teachers reported that the process-approach had become a valued and integral part of their teaching repetoire.

The outcome of this project included a greater degree of involvement by the children than previously observed, increased confidence and self esteem, also a strong tendency for increased performance in the language areas was observed. These modifications of behaviour appeared to be sustained during the classroom experiences and in the playground. It was also observed that through offering children arts experiences based on a process model, many opportunities existed for the development of social skills and for decision making while children were expressing themselves with individuality and confidence.

The process is common to all expressive arts and involves:

- exploring and experimenting with materials and ideas;
- using and extending appropriate skills (in each of the arts areas);
- selecting and developing some aspects and rejecting others;
- sequencing or combining the selections to find a satisfying form;
- refining and defining what is being made;
- reflecting on what has been made.

This process allows children opportunities to become familiar with arts materials and the different ways of using these, while being challenged to make artistic responses. It also encourages children to become discerning and critical of their own endeavours. Children are then able to refine their work to achieve a satisfying response. Reflection allows children the chance to think and talk about what has been made, to make decisions about future experiences, and how ideas may be developed and modified to alter planned outcomes.

This process is not only used in arts programs, but forms the basis for language programs being developed in Tasmania. Recently similar projects have been established to investigate a process method of mathematic and science learning.

The various Tasmanian arts programs and research projects have indicated that it is vital for teachers to recognise the importance of the creative process and its relationship to the artistic outcome. This relationship made explicit through first hand experiences and discussion, has enabled teachers to come to terms with planning and implementing arts experiences which allow the creative process to take place.

Teacher educators must, then, have a similar responsibility in training prospective teachers in a way which enables them to implement appropriate developmental arts programs which will maximise potential for children's development. Too often in training courses the value of arts education, especially a process-based approach to arts education, is not made explicit to student teachers. They are merely offered experiences and left to draw their own conclusions about the purpose and ideas behind such experiences. When the structure of the creative process is made explicit student teachers are able to recognise the purpose and the potential for working with children in classrooms.

During their training at the Tasmanian State Institute of Technology, student teachers are required to complete units in music, drama, movement and visual arts where this process approach forms the basis of the course. Units involved with mathematics, science and language curriculum are also beginning to stress the importance and value of working with children using a process model.

If the status of arts education is to be elevated so that it is generally considered to be a basic learning, as important as "the 3-R's", it must be ensured that our teachers and student teachers are offered the best possible educational model so that they, in turn, will be able to offer appropriate learning experiences to their students and thus obtain the excellent results which inevitably arise from such programs.

This presentation will involve a paper discussing these issues, combined with practical workshops in expressive language and visual arts making explicit the process approach. Our presentation will be supported by a visual display of children working in the arts using a process approach.

## 11.10 SUPERVISING PRACTICE TEACHING – Early Childhood

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Throughout Australia, diminishing tertiary budgets have put increasing pressure on the practicum. In NSW, constraints in the tertiary sector include

- * fewer tertiary teachers (hence higher student:staff ratios)
- * fewer support staff
- * increasing costs (particularly those associated with the payment of co-operating teachers and field-based co-ordinators).

The responsibility for maintaining or improving the quality of the graduating teacher essentially lies with the tertiary institution in which the student is enrolled. It is through practicum experiences that students have an opportunity to apply knowledge and try newly learnt skills. Higher cost factors have resulted in fewer practice teaching days per student during their pre-service teacher preparation program. These tertiary institutions are therfore in a position of trying to do a better job with less money and fewer opportunities for students to take part in practice teaching experiences.

Ongoing discussions at the Institute of Early Childhood Studies, Sydney College of Advanced Education, have attempted to address these challenges. Early Childhood Educators are trained to work with babies, toddlers, 3-8 year olds, parents and other professionals in a variety of Children's Services. During their pre-service training, student teachers undertake practice teaching in a variety of settings to enable them to appreciate the differing demands and responsibilities placed on staff employed therein as well as develop skills associated with 'teaching'.

The Institute of Early Childhood Studies places students throughout the greater Sydney metropolitan area stretching from Newcastle in the north to Kiama in the south and west to Penrith. In the training of early childhood educators, it is sometimes the co-operating teacher who plays a significant role in the supervision of students, in other instances (where students are not placed with teachers) staff from the tertiary institution must accept the responsibility. Even where the co-operating teacher has full responsibility, close liaison between centre/school staff and the tertiary institution is essential. There are insufficient staff to provide a full supervisory program and maintain the liaison required with co-operating teachers. The distances that co-operating teachers are required to travel, even to regional meetings, act as a deterrant to any pre-practicum preparation programs which are provided. Therefore there is greater responsibility being placed on co-operating teachers who have not necessarily been trained to undertake this role.

Whilst rates paid to co-operating teachers continue to make significant inroads into practice teaching budgets and co-operating teachers are required to assume the major responsibility for the assessment and supervision of students undertaking teaching practice, then a means must be found by which they can be prepared for this role. Teachers comment that they do not know, for example, 'what a second year standard is', and are loathe to recommend that a student fail their practicum. They also value the role that a tertiary advisor can play in being able to make comparisons across settings, between students and across geographical areas. They see the institute advisor as the link person between the Institute and their setting and a person who can act as a moderator in difficult situations.

Supervision and, in particular, the provision of feedback to students during their practice teaching, is critical with those undertaking a supervisory role having a significant impact on the teaching styles and attitudes of the students they supervise (Turney et al, 1982). Research (Feiman-Nemser & Buchmann, 1986; Killian & McIntyre, 1987) recommends that teachers participate in inservice to assist their development as advisers however there are a number of problems inherent in this.

Firstly, there is not a widespread requirement that teachers must undertake training in supervision before they can accept the responsibility of having a student. In any case, such a policy would have limited success in a situation where (as is the case at the Institute of Early Childhood Studies) at least 550 placements are made across at least three different settings each semester and the number of field staff who are involved is overwhelming and constantly changing. Secondly, due to other commitments and higher student:staff ratios, tertiary staff have limited time and energy to devote to develping inservice programs. Thirdly, there is the suspicion that teachers who volunteer to attend after hours inservice are either the committed ones who are 'doing a good job ' anyway or the long time personnel who attend out of a sense of duty but never really engage with, interact with, work through the concepts being dealt with. Fourthly, teachers would attend if there were release time during their teaching day for this particular purpose but such provision is not available. Research reports would seem to indicate that suddessful supervision inservice is either small group, school-based (Ingvarson, 1979; Katz, 1977) or large scale and long term (e.g. Turney et al, 1982).

Students also seek feedback and assistance in the development of their teaching skills. They have indicated that sometimes there is little focussed discussion with teachers during their practice teaching and that, despite statements from their tertiary institution, most interaction between them and the teacher with whom they are working, is done 'on the run'. This may be a pleasant discourse but not very analytical. It may focus more on the day's routine rather than on educational or philosophical issues or the specificity of the students' planning and interaction with the children (Fleet, ongoing unpublished study).

There has been an indication that working through a comprehensive assessment document during a 'round table' discussion with the student teacher, the co-operating teacher and the tertiary adviser can provide valuable inservice training (Fleet, 1981). However, this form of participation only partially addresses the problems. Whilst supervision in early childhood teacher education is of concern here and in the literature focussing specifically on the topic (Briggs, 1984; Sebastian et al, 1983) there is still considerable need to develop materials which will enable co-operating teachers and tertiary advisers to more effectively fulfill their role as supervisors of student teachers. It was with this in mind that the Institute of Early Childhood Studies held consultancy meetings with teachers and experienced advisers to discuss issues relating to supervision. One of the outcomes has been the development of a training video and accompanying Leaders' Guide to help supervisors of tertiary students develop skills necessary for them to become confident supervisors of students undertaking practice teaching.

The video provides a basis for discussion and follows students as they go out on practice teaching in daycare centres, preschools, kindergartens and K-2 classrooms. It focuses on three key personnel

- the student
- the co-operating teacher
- the tertiary adviser.

The Leaders' Guide suggests ideas and strategies for

- orienting students to settings
- interpreting curriculum guidelines for practice teaching
- providing feedback
- facilitating students' development through the analysis of their work
- working with the weak student.

This form of inservice, where participants can observe and analyse approaches to supervision in the context of small group discussion can be an efficient and effective means of staff development. With this in mind, the Leaders' Guide provides the format for a two-hour workshop and topics for further discussion are suggested. Examples drawn from experience in the supervision of students can be used to illustrate approaches to effective communication between co-operating teachers, tertiary advisers and students and so assist in the development of appropriate supervisory skills.

Conference workshop participants will have the opportunity to react to this form of inservice and share concerns regarding the need to support advisory staff in the Practicum.

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# 12.2 THE DISCOURSE OF TEACHER EDUCATION POLICY IN AUSTRALIA: A CASE STUDY OF IDEOLOGICAL ACCOMMODATION

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## INTRODUCTION

In Australia, scrutiny of teacher education through Commonwealth and State reports and policy documents has been extensive, especially during the past decade. This attention has paralleled a major thrust for change in teacher education in the United Kingdom and particularly in the United States where the Report of the National Commission for Excellence in Teacher Education, the Carnegie Report and the Holmes Report have each called for the dramatic upgrading of teacher education. This paper argues that, despite calls for change and innovation in teacher education in Australia, the discourse of policy documents invariably reflects an underlying conservatism or what we refer to as an ideology of accommodation. Specific reference is made in the paper to preliminary outcomes from a teacher education policy project underway at the Riverina-Murray Institute.

## THE DISCOURSE OF TEACHER EDUCATION POLICY

Our initial cataloguing and analysis of the last decade's policy documents has begun to unmask the ideological terrain of teacher education in Australia. Although much of this terrain is still yet to be traversed, several preliminary observations are warranted.

The architects of Australian teacher education policy documents appear to take for granted that maintenance orientation is the raison d'etre of teacher education. That is, the role of teacher education is 'to equip people to cope.....' (National Inquiry into Teacher Education (NITE), 1980), to make people feel 'confident in teaching students' (CSC, 1979), and ultimately to provide society with 'an adequate supply of ... teachers' (CTEC/CSC, 1986). The effects of this maintenance orientation are at least two-fold. First, from a teacher supply viewpoint, teacher education has increasingly taken on a fiscal importance as the costs and economic benefits of 'training' comes to be seen within the context of the restructuring of the Australian economy. Queensland's Project 21 and the 1985 report of the Quality of Education Review Committee both make it clear that, while teacher education should still serve a 'maintenance orientation', it has to do so within the context of Australia moving from an industrial to a post-industrial economy. This is further reinforced through recent moves to review the training of science and mathematics teachers in light of the future technological needs of the Australian economy.

A second and more pervasive effect of the maintenance orientation in teacher education is that of producing teachers who are able to fit into existing patterns and structures of schooling, so much so that they come to 'promote and reflect the core values which public schools are seeking in instil' (NSW Department of Education, 1987). Beyer and Zeichner (1987) refer to this as the integrating function, which itself is given prominence in Australian teacher education policy documents. It is pronounced, for instance, in the way the professional development of teachers is conceptualised as a process of assimilation. In this context, the policy documents allude to teacher development as 'a continuing process' (NITE, 1980) whereby teachers 'through carefully structured programmes' (Coulter and Ingvarson, 1985) combined with 'considerable periods of experience ... [begin to] fully assimilate broader issues and respond to changing educational priorities' (CTEC/CSC, 1986 - our emphasis).

The ascribed importance of the integrating function of teacher education is also evident in various policy documents' commentaries on, and suggested recommendations for, pre-service programmes. On the one hand, this is reflected in the prescriptive yet superficial way in which it is often assumed that there is 'a core of studies and learning experiences for all pre-service programmes' (NITE, 1980 - our emphasis) and on the other hand, how the practicum serves the instrumental function of linking theory to practice.

The myriad of recommendations concerning a pre-service core of studies and the associated practicum highlight how deeply technical rationality has penetrated teacher education policy and practice in Australia. Technical rationality manifests itself most obviously in how dominance is given to the acquisition of skills, techniques, and methods associated with teaching. Examples of this abound. For instance, in its Discussion Paper on Teacher Education, the Commonwealth Schools Commission (1979) listed amongst its preferred objectives for pre-service teacher education 'the acquisition of ... knowledge, values and attitudes which will serve both the individual and society', and gaining 'skills in dealing with people and the teaching techniques necessary for professional practice'. Moreover, these and similar objectives in other documents convey an unquestioning reverence to the place of psychology in teacher education. Thus, for instance, high priority is placed on inculcating the rudiments of human growth and development, learning and motivation, but little mention is made of the ideological, political and economic dimensions of education and schooling. Although the rhetoric of more recent documents, such as Queensland's Project 21, does acknowledge a 'reflective critical orientation to teaching', what appears to be promoted is merely reflection on selected and uncontested aspects of the status quo, rather than serious questioning about the existing patterns and structures of schooling.

The arm of technocratic rationality also extends into the discourse about the practicum with its emphasis on role modelling and developing skills through practice. For example mention is made of those 'carefully selected and well-trained practitioners' (NITE, 1980) who not only have 'a responsibility as a professional group for the development of its members' (CSC, 1979) but 'who help student teachers to apply their campus learnings to the classroom teaching situation and to develop their pedagogical skills' (Project 21, 1987). This concentration on development, application, and skills leads to the technical aspects of the practicum becoming ends in themselves with questions of educational purposes, practice and equity largely being ignored.

The patterning of the practicum and pre-service programmes into a specific time sequence provides a different example of how teacher education in Australia is ideologically driven. On this point, the various policy documents are dogmatic and contradictory. Most suggest that it either takes three or four years to *train* a teacher, while at the same time arguing strongly that teacher education should be seen as an ongoing process. The exercise of State and Commonwealth control is also visible in the way in which the discourse of policy documents genuflects to the notion that there should be a 'diversity of models' for teacher education, but that the time length of teacher education courses should be similar.

The discussion so far has drawn attention to the type of ideological terrain that characterises teacher education policy documents promulgated in Australia during the past decade. By necessity, our analysis has been cursory. And yet, in the few references made to various documents there can be no mistake that teacher education policy has been predicated on an 'ideology of accommodation' which results in a conformity to conservatism. In the context of teacher education in Australia, this ideology manifests itself as a maintenance orientation which pays homage to the principles of technical rationality. There is, however, a sense of unease in conceding that teacher education policy documents in Australia may be deeply sedimented with this type of ideology for it might imply that, in practice, teachers become easily duped by the system and do not resist being assimilated and domesticated. The fact that teachers do engage in contestation and resistance provides a sense of optimism and perhaps a way forward for a radical paradigm shift in teacher education.

## CONCLUSION: TOWARD A PARADIGM SHIFT

A lead has already been taken towards a redefinition of teacher education by Giroux and McLaren (1987). They argue that there is a need to move beyond the 'language of critique' to the 'language of possibility' and thereby move from theorizing *about* schools to theorizing *for* schools. This approach enables an emancipatory model of teacher education to be constructed. A central tenet of this model is that the teacher is a

> .....transformative intellectual who
> defines schooling as an ethical and empower-

> ing enterprise dedicated to the fostering of democracy, to the exercise of greater social justice and to the building of a more equitable social order.
>
> [Giroux and McLaren, 1987, p. 270]

In tandem with this idea of the teacher as a 'transformative intellectual', the notion of 'counter-hegemony' is employed by Giroux and McLaren to develop a political, theoretical and critical understanding of ideology and domination and the type of active opposition it should engender. In this way, teacher education can be viewed as a 'counterpublic sphere' where the classroom is seen as a cultural milieu characterised by contestation, struggle and resistance. This is in stark contrast to the prevailing paradigm in teacher education which portrays the classroom in terms of rules and regulations and management by the teacher.

According to Giroux and McLaren, a counter-hegemonic curriculum for teacher education would comprise a form of cultural politics stressing the importance of the social, cultural, political and economic as the primary categories for understanding schooling. As part of this curriculum, at least two tasks would be undertaken by potential teachers. First, an analysis of how schooling is organized and conducted within asymmetrical relations of power (critique). Second, they would engage in the construction of political strategies aimed at furthering democracy in schools (transformation). Teaching practice would involve understanding and experience of the nature of power, ideology and culture in schools rather than being saturated with learning models and strategies, behavioural outcomes and techniques of teacher performance. A counter-hegemonic curriculum would also embody a pedagogy which makes problematic the existing relations of power and dependency in teacher education. Freire's (1972) notion of a dialogical or problem-solving pegagogy as distinct from a banking mode would be relevant here.

As Giroux and McLaren point out, a paradigm shift in teacher education has to be part of a broader political and social agenda. Moreover justifying a departure from the conventional wisdom of current teacher education practices will require a detailed consideration of the pedagogical possibilities and political limits of the newer, more radical paradigms. The recantations and opposition that results from this process will itself provide a commentary on the hegemony currently exercised by the technical, mechanistic and maintenance orientation prevalent in teacher education policy and practice in Australia.

(A fuller copy of this paper, including the list of references, can be obtained by writing to the authors.)

# 12.3 TEACHER EDUCATION STUDENTS' ATTITUDES AND PERCEIVED COMPETENCE IN TEACHING DISABLED CHILDREN IN THE REGULAR PRIMARY SCHOOL CLASSROOM.

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## Background

At Victoria College this year (1988) we have introduced a new unit in the Diploma of Teaching (Primary) Course titled 'Integration of the Disabled in the Classroom'. All third year students (except Community Language majors) are enrolled in this compulsory unit on both our Toorak and Burwood campuses. Victoria College is the largest teacher training college in the State and we have an enrolment of 350 students for this unit. The unit has been introduced for the first time as a compulsory pre-service unit in response to the growing demand from the Victorian Ministry of Education and practising teachers to be trained to teach children with a wider range of individual differences. The Victorian Ministerial Review, (1984) titled 'Integration in Victorian Education' actually recommends a mandatory 84 hours on Integration in preservice Teacher Education Courses. The review builds on the principle that integration embodies the right of every child to education in the regular school and recommends widespread changes to existing provisions. The two processes implied in integration are:

i) increasing the participation of children with impairments and disabilities in the educational and social activities of the regular school and
ii) maintaining participation through appropriate support in the regular classroom for children who might otherwise be segregated from it.

Thus the focus in Victorian education now has shifted from the concept of the individual child with a special educational need to one of a school environment adapted to cater for a wide range of exceptionality. Related principles adopted by the review include the non-categorisation of disabilities so that future organisation and provision of services should cut across categories of disability rather than be directed towards one type; that resources and services should as far as possible be school based and that all children, regardless of the severity of their disability, can learn and be taught and are entitled to educational provision on the same basis as other children. These major recommendations have been accepted as government policy and are seen as a significant departure from policy guidelines elsewhere such as in NSW (Doherty, 1982) the United Kingdom (Warnock, 1978) and the United States ( Jenkinson,1987).

## Statement of the issue under investigation:

These wide sweeping Government policies indicate that integration is an extremely complex process and the challenge currently facing Victoria ( and Australia as stated by Gow 1986) is to ensure that integration is effectively implemented and monitored. According to Gow there appears ideologically to be a

widespread acceptance of integration in all spheres of education but the current realities of implementation are sometimes impeding the process of successful integration. In earlier research (McGrath, Armstrong and Noble, 1986) where we conducted interviews with 62 teachers working with integrated children we found that many teachers feel that they do not have the skills, knowledge or school support to be successful teachers of the disabled. These findings are supported by Doughty and Hoey (1987) in their paper titled 'Fear A Reality of Integration' where integration was discussed from the perspectives of the classroom teacher, the school principal and the parents of the disabled children.
It seems reasonable to speculate that this unease in regard to the successful implementation of government policies on integration could lead classroom teachers involved in integration to develop a low sense of professional and personal competence. Even perceiving that they do not have the skills to help these children learn appears a source of teacher stress preventing the teacher working effectively with any child. A further contributing factor to teacher stress is the possible unease or even hostility in regard to the implementation of integration among school staff and with parents of both the integrated children and the other children.

The implications drawn from these previous research papers indicates the necessity for immediate attention to be given to both the preservice and inservice training of all teachers to ensure they have the necessary skills and attitudes to be able to effectively teach students with a wider range of abilities and behaviours. Further rationale for the development of courses on integration can be found in the work of many writers (eg Biklen 1986) who state that good integration practices are good teaching practices. This clearly infers that the skills acquired to teach the disabled child will improve all teachers' skills in teaching all children.

## Aims of the Research

To tap teacher education students' attitudes, understandings and knowledge/skills re integration to determine their perceived competence in teaching the disabled child before and after the compulsory unit on Integration of the Disabled in the Classroom to ascertain:

- methods of increasing both students and teachers' perceptions of competence and skills in working with children with impairments, disabilities and problems in the regular classroom and

- more effective methods of training teachers in integration at both the preservice and inservice levels.

## Design.

A questionnaire designed to tap the above research objectives was distributed to all students enrolled in the unit at the beginning of the students' first lecture and redistributed at the end of the semester. This procedure was designed to measure any attitude change towards integration and the disabled child and to tap any increase in the students' perceived competence in teaching the disabled in an integrated setting. Allowing the students to compare their own responses before and after the course of study is seen as as effective strategy for helping the students reflect on any attitude change and to help them become more aware of any changes in their knowledge and understanding of disabled children, integration and sound teaching practices.

The same questionnaire was distributed to students majoring in a community language who are not enrolled in the Integration unit  Both subgroups of students will graduate as generalist primary school teachers at the end of this year

**Discussion of Results**:

The following discussion of results is based on students responses to the questionnaire at the beginning of the unit  Presentation of all results and implications for teacher education will be made in the paper presentation at the SPATE '88 conference

Sixty student questionnaires were analysed for this preliminary review There was an overwhelming acceptance for integration with 86 7% of the students agreeing or strongly agreeing to the statement that it is appropriate for disabled children to be placed in a regular primary classroom  However this degree of acceptance was in direct contrast to the students low sense of competence in teaching the disabled  98 3% of the students disagreed or strongly disagreed to the statement that "at this stage of my teacher training course I have acquired many of the necessary skills to teach disabled children in the regular primary school classroom" It should be remembered that these students will be graduating as generalist primary school teachers at the end of this academic year

Only one question generated some level of disagreement where 30% agreed to the statement that the regular classroom teacher is competent to teach children with a wide diversity of abilities and behaviour (including intellectually disabled children and children with behavioural problems) whilst 70% of the students disagreed to this statement  A focus on some reference to these two specific groups of disabled students was made as our previous research (McGrath, Armstrong and Noble 1986) had found that teachers felt least competent in teaching these two groups of children in the integrated classroom  In particular teachers felt that they did not have adequate behavioural management skills to deal with inappropriate behaviours nor adequate skills to adapt the curriculum for the intellectually disabled  Hence the following questions were included to guage students' perceived competence in teaching the intellectually disabled

88 3% of the students stated that they did not feel competent in selecting or adapting appropriate teaching methods and materials for intellectually disabled children  83 3 % of the students agreed with the statement that intellectually disabled children require different teaching methods to children in a regular primary classroom and 90% believed that special resources are needed to teach intellectually disabled children  It is of interest to note that all the students sampled save one believed that teachers need a specialised knowledge of the particular disability to teach that child effectively  This appears to support a special education perspective rather than the guiding principles of integration such as non-categorisation etc There were no significant differences between the two subgroups of students in the general levels of agreement versus disagreement on these statements.

## Summary.

Before instruction in a new course on Integration of the Disabled, teacher education students are indicating a high level of acceptance of the principle of integration of the disabled in the regular primary school classroom but are indicating a low sense of their personal and professional competence to teach in the integrated classroom. The unit includes a practicum where students work with a disabled child in an integrated classroom. All the students will be retested at the end of the semester to determine any shift in attitudes towards integration and their sense of personal competence in teaching in an integrated classroom

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# 12.4 Towards a theory of teaching.

Clive Lindop WIAE

In 1979 John Sandberg wrote a provocative piece lamenting that teachers as a group are the greatest single obstacle to children's learning. Sandberg pointed to three widespread assumptions as the underlying cause of the problem: the mistaken belief that teaching causes learning; the belief that learning can occur only as a result of teaching; and the belief that teaching is synonymous with telling. The first two are readily shown to be false, but it is the third that, although false, is most firmly entrenched in the minds of college students and teachers and much harder to eradicate. In primary teacher education, students are continually admonished to drop chalk and talk in favour of engaging pupils in concrete learning experiences as their mode of operation. But few begining teachers are sufficiently confident to resist complaints from many older teachers, parents and pupils themselves that playing with blocks, etc. is kindergarten stuff and not for them, so revert to giving instruction via the familiar chalk and talk method. Given their concerns with self and acceptance by others, a simple, yet powerful, conceptualization of teaching which matches common sense experience, could help speed autonomy and the development of their own style of teaching within an easily understood and defensible theory.

Such a theory can be formed by reminding ourselves of the purpose of teaching. Children are given teachers not to form obstacles to their learning but for the very opposite purpose of facilitating their learning. View teaching as facilitating learning. This conceptualisation is neutral as to how this facilitation is to take place. It implies nothing about telling or giving instruction. It does however demand that teachers have a clear view about that which they are to facilitate, viz: learning. The learning involved here is that which enables pupils to acquire large bodies of knowledge over extended periods of time. And this is the complex rather than simple learning which Rumelhart and Norman (1978) describe as a combination of three complimentary processes the understanding of which is necessary for anyone who wishes to facilitate the sort of learning involved in classroom practice. The failure of teacher education to offer students such an adequate theory of learning as a foundation for their teaching is one of the reasons for accepting that Sandberg's claim is still relevant today. Teaching as facilitating learning involves facilitating three complimentary processes which they call accretion, restructuring and tuning.

Accretion involves the acquisition of new information or data. Pupils in classrooms are called upon to accumulate much new information in a variety of ways - of which telling is just one, and a counter productive one, if Sandberg is right. Data alone is of little value until something is done with it. This is where the process of restructuring comes into play. Reorganisation of the data until a pattern is seen, until a new framework or schema is created, characterises this phase of the learning process. This brings new insight, the data now makes sense, it is internalised. It is at this stage that learners would exclaim that they understand, that they see it, that it all makes sense. Accretion is acquisition, restructuring is understanding. Restructuring is the most dramatic of the three modes or processes of learning and arguably the most difficult to facilitate. Teachers, recalling Sandberg, are tempted to hurry this along by simply telling or showing pupils the pattern or principle rather than facilitating its discovery or construction, thus becoming unintentional obstacles to pupil learning. As Norman (1978) remarks, "restructuring requires good teaching". The teacher's knowledge of both pupils and topic is tested during this phase of the learning process.

Once data has been sorted and the pattern or principle of organisation realised, the learner can go on to become more proficient in the use of this new principle. The process of fine tuning this new skill Norman calls tuning. It involves practising this new organising principle until its use becomes automatic: redundant steps are eliminated, short cuts are found. The three processes of accretion, restructuring and tuning occur together, complimenting each other in the course of learning. This theory has much to recommend it for it is neat and matches ordinary experience. Accretion is the normal kind of fact learning, the daily accumulation of information in which we all engage. We learn much by first noticing things. acquiring new bits of information, having things pointed out to us. In classrooms teachers continually draw pupils' attention to lots of information to be learnt. Beginners can feel at ease with this mode of learning by acquisition and sceptics can readily accept its validity because, as Rumelhart and Norman point out, accretion is the sort of learning traditionally studied by psychologists and about which much is known. Learning by accretion assumes that the schemata required in the interpretation of new input already exist. Whenever this is not the case, the sheer accretion of knowledge is ineffective; information alone is of little value and in danger of being lost, forgotten or dismissed unless something is done with it, unless we start thinking about it, start reorganising it in some way in order to make sense of it. This involves the creation of a new schema, a new organising structure or category system for interpreting data. This restructuring too, matches experience and the reality test that cynical teachers challenge new ideas with. And practice or tuning, with its modification of existing schemata, is already widely accepted as a pedagogic tool. Thus complex learning theory can be accepted by conservative teachers sceptical of theory without radical change to their own operational schema or reference framework.

That Sandberg's claim is still true today is verified by recent research done by Neville Bennett and his associates in England. Bennett (1984) used Norman's theory to construct a category system of learning task demand which teachers make on pupils in the classroom. Tasks which involve pupils in the acquisition of new facts, skills, rules or prodedures, so engaging them in the process of accretion, he called incremental tasks. Tasks which have pupils working with familiar material in order to disccover, invent or construct a new way of looking at the data, so engaging them in the restructuring process, he called restructuring tasks. Tasks which develop pupils' strategic skills of how and when to apply the new restructuring principle or framework in unfamiliar contexts, he called enrichment tasks. Tasks which demand repeated and rapid application of familiar knowledge and skills to familiar settings and problems, so tuning and speeding up pupil response until it becomes automatic, he called practice tasks. These four types of task are derived directly from Norman's theory. Bennett added a fifth type of task demand, that of revision, which does not emanate from Norman's theory but which teachers employ to minimise loss of learning or evoke earlier material as a foundation for learning new material.

Bennett's team used this category system to study the quality of pupil learning experiences by noting the actual and intended learning task demands made of pupils by their teachers over two school terms. The results tend to confirm Sandberg's claim. Approximately 60% of the task demands made were practice, 25% were incremental, enrichment (6%), revision (6%), and unclassified (3%) made up the rest. The teachers almost entirely neglected the vital learning task of restructuring which made up 0.5% of the task demands. Since restructuring is a vital learning process catering directly for understanding, the teachers, by neglecting to provide for it in their planning and practice, are failing their pupils badly. With 60% of their task demands being practice, it seems that these teachers assume that understanding will occur of its own accord if pupils are kept practising (by rote?) long enough the knowledge provided in the incremental tasks. These better than average teachers are operating on the basis of a naive and erroneous theory of learning in their classroom practice.

Once the notion that learning is a unitary process is rejected and replaced with Rumelhart and Norman's theory that learning is a complex interaction of the processes of accretion, restructuring and tuning, it is possible to form an improved theory of teaching. When teaching is viewed as the facilitation of learning then teaching can be seen as the A.R.T. of learning: it requires that teachers engage pupils in the learning processes of accretion, restructuring and tuning. The teacher's task is to devise (learning) activities to engage pupils with the material (content) to be learnt. From the point of view of complex learning theory, the choice of activity is determined by the learning process the teacher sees as appropriate for pupils at the time. For example, if the pupils require information (data) to work on, then the teacher engages pupils in activities which allow for acquisition of the appropriate data. Should the pupils already have the requisite information but need to make sense of it, then the teacher engages them in activities which involve them reorganising the data so as to reveal the pattern, principle, structure, schema, to be adopted. If pupils already have the organising principle but lack the skill and/or confidence in recognising or applying it in other instances or situations, then the teacher engages them in activities which allow them to practise this in order to fine tune their understanding to a wider range of instances until this becomes automatic. Hence the choice of learning activity is dictated by the (learning) purpose or function it serves the pupil.

This point was also made by Jack Fraenkel (1973) who argued that not all learning activities serve the same function. Some provide for intake of information; these are essential since pupils must have information to work with or think about before they can be expected to engage in intelligent action. Intake activities then, engage pupils in the process of accretion. Pupils must have data before they can do anything with it. But raw data must be organised and internalised in anticipation of being used - hence the necessity for a different type of learning activity which facilitates organisation of information (the restructuring learning mode or process). A third type of learning activity helps pupils practice and demonstrate what they have learned (thus engaging the tuning mode or process). These three activities would involve Bennett's task demands of aquisition, restructuring and practice. Fraenkel's fourth type of activity, the expressive, serves to encourage pupils to use their new understanding in an expressive or creative way to produce some new or different product. This activity would combine elements of Bennett's practice and enrichment task demands. Fraenkel argues that all four types of activity - intake, organisation, demonstration and expressive, are essential if learning is to take place. This claim is supported by the theory of complex learning as Fraenkel's IODE strategy intimately involves all three modes of learning which in turn provide a sound rationale for adopting his view.

Fraenkel's strategy and the complex learning theory offers teachers a procedure and a rationale for designing a unit of work be it one or several lessons in length. But this is still incomplete as a theory of teaching as it says nothing about the manner or mode of instruction. Pupils could simply be told the information and told the organising principle they are to use, then given exercises to practice with. Such an approach is open to Sandberg's charge of creating obstacles to pupils learning because they are not actively engaged in the acquisition and organisation learning processes. Fraenkel's approach can benefit by incorporating Bruner's notion of representation. Any idea, concept, information can be represented and/or presented in any one of three fundamental ways: enactive, iconic, or symbolic. These parallel Piaget's three fundamental stages of cognitive development: the preoperational, concrete operational and formal operational. Bruner (1966) recommends using all three modes of representation, and in the sequence enactive, iconic, symbolic, to facilitate learning. Rather than telling and requiring that pupils listen, teachers, especially in primary schools, should be matching the mode of representation/presentation to pupil cognitive development by emphasisng the use of enactive and iconic modes in designing learning activities. So when planning to teach any topic, the theory outlined above suggests that teachers proceed by designing intake/acquisition, organisation/restructuring, demonstration/practice, and expressive/enrichment activities utilising enactive, iconic and symbolic modes of representation for each type of activity. In this way teachers can be assured that they are indeed facilitating learning and give a sound rationale for their plan.

# 12.5 INFORMATION SKILLS IN PRE-SERVICE TEACHER EDUCATION

By

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Modern society is an information society and individuals need to become competent in information skills if they are to be effective members of that society. Speaking at a conference at Melbourne University on April 23, 1988 Mr. Barry Jones, the Minister for Science stated that students had to develop these information skills because "they need to be able to gather, analyse and synthesise information rather than simply learning vast bodies of knowledge". State Ministries of Education are also recognising the importance of information skills. Some States, such as Victoria, have issued documents to assist teachers in developing information skills in students. The Victorian publication, *A Manual for Teaching Information Skills*, (1) published in 1987, states that:

> This booklet outlines a framework within which the skills required to locate, extract and synthesise information from a variety of sources may be taught. The effective teaching of information skills is important to:
>
> (a) provide access to information.
> (b) enable students to use information for purposeful inquiry, informed decision-making and life-long learning.
>
> Education Department policy relating to curriculum development emphasises the need for students to have opportunities to use a variety of inquiry-approaches to gather and analyse information and to "use a variety of media for understanding and communicating ideas and information".

Information skills can be categorised into four broad groups:

1. Skills for identifying and locating information sources which included the skills that concern the understanding of the importance of information, the knowledge of a range on information resources and the ability to access the resources.

2. Skills for information retrieval: The ability to locate specific pieces of information.

3. Skills for organising information which includes the ability to analyse and synthesise information and impart some organisation on information that is utilised.

4. Skills in communication of information which includes the ability to apply information and to demonstrate its value.

In Australian pre-service teacher education these skills are rarely systematically taught to students and pre-service students are virtually never trained to teach these information skills, the major exception to this is in courses designed to train teacher librarians. UNESCO has seen the need to train teachers in information skills and to develop a method for teaching these skills to student at all grade levels. A team of Australian educators were awarded a contract to wrtie a course for UNESCO and the course, Course for all teachers on the use of information resource and libraries by all teachers, (2) was published in 1983 and is now being used in Africa, South America and a number of Pacific Island States, but such a course is not being offered in Australia.

Studies in Canada, USA and Australia have shown that most teachers do not read very much and that they make little use of periodical literature (3). In a world where information doubles every five to eight years, it will not take long before a teacher who does not make use of current information will be teaching things that are out of date or wrong. It is important therefore that all teachers are aware of the value of information and develop the skills to locate and effectively utilise current information in their own teaching. Teachers realise that the content and quality of curriculum resources influence not only what students learn but how well they learn it. Therefore it is crucial that a careful materials selection process take place in every school. For, if curriculum materials are not carefully chosen and organised for effective use, curriculum goals may not be achieved, or worse, may be completely subverted.

Curriculum resources are the tools for every good teacher. As in every other profession the quality of the job is dependent on the quality of the tools which are provided. Yet most teachers are not specifically trained in the selection of curriculum materials.

Even when curriculum materials are well developed and are available in schools, they are not necessarily effectively utilised by classroom teachers. Kerry Kennedy in a study of Western Australian Schools identified a number of reasons for this and he concluded that, "For the future, real efforts need to be made to ensure that both teachers and students are able to take advantage of the curriculum resources available as they engage the teaching/learning process" (4).

Schools of Education need to develop modules that will enable pre-service teacher education students to acquire a range of information skills which they can use themselves and also pass these skills on to their students. Such a module is being introduced into the "Introduction to Teaching Units" at Gippsland Institute in 1988.

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# 12.6 BEYOND THE SCHOOL : A CASE STUDY

## Responding to Educational Needs in Western Sydney

### INTRODUCTION:

By the year 2000 over 1.5 million people will live in Western and South Western Sydney. The provision of post-secondary education has not kept pace with population growth and despite plans for a new university and expansion of existing institutions access to educational opportunities beyond school will continue to be inferior for these people. A wide variety of opportunities for learning must be available in supportive environments. The conventional schooling model is not always relevant.

Catholic College of Education Sydney has signalled its commitment to the needs of this region by the establishment in 1988 of the Western Sydney Project. This presentation will provide an opportunity to describe some of the initiatives which could be taken. These range from short courses to meet specific community needs to a range of diploma, degree and post-graduate courses normally offered by a tertiary institution.

### DEFINING WESTERN SYDNEY.

The Australian Bureau of Statistics uses the local government areas of Auburn, Parramatta, Holroyd, Fairfield, Blacktown, Baulkham Hills, Hawkesbury and Blue Mountains as its statistical subdivision of Western Sydney. The boundaries of the C.C.E.S. project are extended to include the south-western local government areas of Liverpool, Campbelltown, Camden and Wollondilly. The statistics quoted in this paper usually apply to the larger area of Western and South Western Sydney. At the 1986 Census approximately one third of Sydney's population lived in the region. About 46% of the residents are under the age of 25 years, compared with 37% in the rest of Sydney. A high proportion of the population is overseas born (over 40% in Fairfield) and the majority of these were born in non-English speaking countries.

### PARTICIPATION IN HIGHER EDUCATION:

The low levels of educational attainment achieved by residents of the region have been well documented. At the 1986 census the proportion of the population holding a degree or diploma was 5.7% compared with 9.0% for the total Sydney region. A total of 61.9% of the population held no post-school qualification of any kind, and 65.7 left school by the age of 16 years. (A.B.S.. 1988)

Current participation rates are very low in comparison with the overall population in the State. In 1986 5.4% of the residents of Western Sydney were enrolled at Universities or C.A.E's. This is one quarter of the participation rate for New South Wales as a whole, and one seventh of the rate for the rest of Sydney. With a higher youth population in the west, participation rates should be greater than elsewhere, if any degree of equity is to be achieved.

Several recent reports on access to higher education opportunities in Western Sydney have attempted to address the problem and identify solutions. Following the Parry Report (1985) recommendation for the establishment of a University, planning has commenced for a College of the University of Sydney, to enrol its first students in 1990. The Parry Committee's inquiry provoked many submissions and later, several responses to its recommendations. These all stressed the current inadequate access to study opportunities beyond school age. It is to be hoped that the change of State Government does not delay planning for the commencement of courses at the beginning of 1990.

## IMPROVING ACCESS

Many factors have deterred young people in Western Sydney from seeking opportunities for further education. The lack of family tradition of any schooling beyond the period of compulsory attendance is a major influence. The geographic disadvantages of poor transport systems to outlying suburbs and the long hours of travel to reach existing institutions are obvious deterents.

Inadequate access to higher education also contributes to lower retention rates in the senior secondary school. A major incentive to complete Years 11 and 12 is usually the desire to enrol in tertiary education. While the Tertiary Awareness Program operating in the western and south western suburbs is achieving commendable results in widening the horizons of youth in upper secondary classes it cannot counteract the inequity of access to further education. This cycle can only be broken by local provision of higher education opportunities.

Unfortunately research studies indicate that not only does the region have fewer applicants for entry to tertiary institutions, but those who do apply have much less chance than their peers in other parts of Sydney of receiving an offer of enrolment. Students resident in Western Sydney achieve significantly lower H.S.C. aggregates than the mean for all candidates. A combination of social, economic and educational factors contribute to discrimination against entry to tertiary education for those resident in the west.

Several institutions have already developed alternative entry schemes. The Newstart program at Nepean C.A.E., Macarthur Institute's Regional Entry Test and the Broadway scheme at the University of Sydney are three alternatives means of access. Such programs need to be extended and the longer experience of Victorian institutions is worthy of further study. In the same way that mature age entrants achieve high levels of success the superior performance of special entry students has vindicated the introduction of these programs.

Tertiary institutions must extend their open access to a wider range of students. One group worthy of immediate attention are those who have completed or are currently enrolled in TAFE diploma and certificate courses. Articulation with such courses has been proposed by the Green Paper on Higher Education and tertiary institutions should open discussions on granting credit for comparable courses completed outside the tertiary sector. Many potential clients for this type of credit have studied through TAFE in Western Sydney and need opportunities for further study.

## AREAS OF STUDENT NEED:

Despite the low participation rates in higher education and the failure of many aspiring applicants to satisfy the entry requirements of tertiary institutions which serve Western Sydney, there remains a high level of unmet demand. In recent years less than 50% of eligible applicants resident in Western Sydney have gained entry to tertiary education. Research carried out for the planning council of the new university has indicated that the areas of greatest demand are business and administration, science and technology, and broad based arts studies.

Existing institutions are unlikely to satisfy demand in any of these areas in the near future, particularly if increased demand follows the higher retention rates in Years 11 and 12, which have become evident in 1987 and 1988. If access is to be extended to non-HSC candidates then the shortfall in student places available will be even greater.

Interviews with many key people in Western Sydney have shown that a great need exists for opportunities for study outside the formal structures of education. These needs could often be satisfied by short courses offered in a non-institutional setting. Many of the potential clients for such courses have memories of bad experiences in their schooling, and for them second chance learning opportunities need to be offered in an informal setting. Courses would range from basic literacy and numeracy, through a variety of communication techniques to job oriented skills for the work scene. The latter would commence with keyboard skills, leading to word processing and computer courses.

Within the scope of such a Community Education Program would come family related studies such as parenting/child care, also recreation courses plus leisure skills and hobbies. The length of these programs would vary according to need but initial five or six weeks courses of one session per week could lead to longer and more intensive programs. Some full time courses could entitle students to credit towards one of the College's recognised diplomas.

## PROFESSIONAL NEEDS

College involvement in meeting the professional needs of teachers through the range of post-graduate studies offered by part time attendance will continue. Some of these courses could be offered at locations in Western Sydney from the beginning of 1989. The College is negotiating with the Catholic Education Office for Parramatta Diocese to share in the planning and conduct of inservice courses for teachers. Some of these courses could lead to credit towards College awards.

Professional needs in other fields are also under consideration and the College's planning of further study opportunities for nurses is cognisant of needs in Western Sydney. Courses in Ministry are also proposed with the co-operation of Bishop Bede Heather through the Institute of Ministry for the Parramatta Diocese.

These proposals reflect some of the areas of need already identified through discussions with a wide range of contacts in Western Sydney. A diagrammatic presentation of the possible areas of study will be distributed as part of the discussion process within the Conference workshop. Reactions of participants will be welcome.

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# 13.1 CURRICULUM IMPLEMENTATION : STUDENT VIEWS : AN ISSUE FOR TEACHER EDUCATION

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## 1. Aim and significance

(a) This paper reports an aspect of a wider study on the implementation of a new senior secondary syllabus in New South Wales high schools. It aims to show the implementation of the Society and Culture syllabus from the student point of view - students as supporters and students as resistors of change or students as pioneer enthusiasts and students as pioneer realists. As such it has important messages for teacher education because the more a new curriculum departs from the accepted norms the more it deskills both teachers and students and therefore the more assistance the students need with the new learning strategies required. (b) There is a great deal of emphasis in the literature on the support that teachers need as they cope and learn to become comfortable with curriculum change. See for example Fullan (1982). However little has existed until recently on the support students require in curriculum change. Stenhouse (undated) proclaimed the "need to establish a new climate of relationships with adolescents" when writing at the time of the introduction of the Humanities Curriculum Project and Rudduck (1984) has discussed the importance of helping pupils come to grips with curriculum change. Most of the existing literature focuses on the role of students in day to day classroom interactions.

## 2. The Society and Culture Syllabus

The Society and Culture syllabus was developed by a NSW government statutory authority, the Board of Senior School Studies (BSSS) for Years 11 and 12 and is recognised for matriculation by all universities and colleges of advanced education in NSW. It is a multi-disciplinary syllabus which includes an Opening Section entitled 'Coming of Age in Today's World' and seven Depth Studies from which three are chosen, namely: Adolescence; Intercultural Communication; Political Processes; Religion and Belief; Rules, Rights and Laws; Social Inequality, Prejudice and Discrimination; and Work Leisure and Sport; and a Closing Section 'Looking Ahead to Tomorrow's World". There is also a Personal Interest Project (PIP) worth 20 per cent of the external Higher School Certificate (HSC), which is an integral part of the syllabus (BSSS, 1983:49) and is a means of drawing together the various aspects of the syllabus.

The syllabus has as its aim the development of social literacy which means:

> to acquire a set of concepts, skills, interests, attitudes and values that can be used effectively in observing, understanding, relating to and contributing to the social world (BSSS, 1983:2).

It is a conceptually based syllabus and the fundamental concepts of person, society, culture, environment, time and their interactions recur throughout the two years of teaching and learning. As can be seen from the various course components it is also cross-disciplinary drawing on social psychology, anthropology, sociology, political science, legal studies and religious studies. Cross-cultural comparison is required throughout the two years of study and may occur within Australia over time and place or be made by comparing cultural groups different from the students' own with others in Australia or overseas. The syllabus also emphasises the bringing together of the worlds of personal experience and public knowledge (BSSS, 1983:2). It can be seen therefore that Society and Culture has a number of aspects which make demands on teachers but also make significant demands on students because the interactions in the classroom require an emphasis on student experience with the teacher helping students to make the necessary conceptual links with public knowledge. The PIP also stresses the role of students as researchers involving them far more in directing their own learning.

## 3. Methodology

This research was conducted over a four year period from 1984 to 1987 and was supported by three Macquarie University Research Grants and a substantial grant from the NSW Department of Education. It also had the support of the Catholic Education Office. The research included eventually nine case study schools including two in the non-metropolitan area, a November 1986 survey of all schools known to be implementing schools and follow-up interviews conducted in the first half of 1987. The teachers in all the case study schools volunteered to take part in this research and it is primarily from these schools that the student data are reported. However, in the questionnaire survey principals, head teachers and teachers were asked for their perceptions of student reactions to the course. In the case study schools: lessons were observed; student reactions to the lessons were sought by the completion of comment sheets; a small sample of students was interviewed; and inter-school visits and student reactions to these were monitored.

## 4. Literature Review

In 1932 Waller wrote of the process a teacher goes through in meeting a new class and defining the possibilities and limitations of behaviour and Ball (1980, 153) has concluded that pupils go through the same process. Stenhouse (undated) wrote of the need for co-operation not coercion in activities in the classroom and the need to develop 'genuine personal relations' with students at the time of the raising of the school leaving age in Britain. Gibbons and Phillips (1978) have shown a sequence of classroom activities that can be used to facilitate the move from teacher to student-directed learning. Rudduck (1984) and Wittrock (1986) have emphasised that students need to have explained not only the what but the why so they become partners with their teachers in the 'grand design'. Drew (1986) emphasises the importance of motivation in curriculum change while Hall (1986 : 2) citing MacDonald (1970) wrote of a view of the pupil group as 'expert-in-role and powerful in custodianship of the norms of classroom behaviour for which it had become accustomed'. Deer and Thompson (1987) emphasise the value of forming networks of students from different schools which show them that their concerns are not peculiar to those in their own school. Doyle (1986 : 424) stresses that curriculum or curriculum design needs to be studied in conjunction with classroom processes and management processes.

## 5. Findings

The research showed that students doing a new subject want to be fully informed about it and its implications before they take it on. They also want others in the school to know what they are undertaking and what the new subject involves. These 'others' include the school executive and both teachers and students. In particular, with a totally new subject such as Society and Culture when no siblings have taken the subject, special information about it needs to be conveyed to parent groups so there is a chance for home support to develop. The timetabling of the subject also helped to establish its status in the school as did its name in the early stages. Publicity about a new course is clearly an important way to support students in curriculum change.

During the first two years of the course there were no special texts on the market and while some students adjusted easily finding that resources 'were all round them, they're us' others found the lack of security daunting.

The nature of the relationships developed with teachers provided a particular source of support for many students who appeared to enjoy being pioneers with their teachers. For other students where their own teachers appeared to be uncertain of requirements owing to their own lack of support the new curriculum became somewhat of a hardship.

## 6. Conclusions

(a) Using Miles (1983) and Miles, Ekholm and Vandenberghe's (1987) work a model is developed showing how students can be supported in curriculum change.

(b) Implications of the research for teacher education are discussed including the need for teachers to be more explicit in their classroom interactions by saying what they are doing and why, thus helping students understand what the new involves and the development of genuine personal relationships with students. These aims are of course no more than what the good teacher has always done.

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## 13.2 SECONDARY TEACHERS: SPECIALISTS or GENERALISTS?

The data with which this paper is concerned were collected as part of the Western Region New South Wales Central Schools Project, a research project conducted jointly by Mitchell College of Advanced Education and the NSW Department of Education's Western Region Office. All the teachers in each of the nineteen schools in the Region were surveyed by means of a questionnaire on a comprehensive range of issues related to living in rural areas and teaching in Central Schools (ie combined Primary/Secondary schools with classes from grades K-10 or K-12). The full report of the study is expected to be available later this year. The present paper is concerned with only a small subset of the data.

In all, 337 teachers completed questionnaires. Because of the way in which the survey was organised, response rates were very high, perhaps 90% of the teacher population in those schools. For nearly two-fifths (38%) of the teachers their current teaching position was their first appointment. Of the others, the mean years of service was thirteen, with a range up to twenty years.

The professional qualifications of the group are summarised in Table 1.

**TABLE 1: PROFESSIONAL QUALIFICATIONS**

| Qualification | n | % |
|---|---|---|
| Teaching Certificate (2 yr trained) | 47 | 14.1 |
| Dip Teach | 150 | 45.0 |
| BA Dip Ed | 67 | 20.1 |
| BSc Dip Ed | 23 | 6.9 |
| BEd | 24 | 7.2 |
| Other | 22 | 6.6 |
| | 333 | 100.0 |

Forty respondents (12%) indicated that they had additional qualifications, ranging from 'raising children' through specialist qualifications in areas such as trades, other professional qualifications, sports and music, to post-graduate educational qualifications such as Graduate Diplomas and Masters Degrees.

As Table 2 shows, nearly half the group were originally trained as secondary teachers, with almost two-fifths trained as primary. Fewer than two and a half per cent had a specifically small schools training that might fit them somewhat better for a Central Schools position.

### TABLE 2: ORIGINAL TRAINING

| Type of Training | n | % |
|---|---|---|
| Infants/Early Childhood | 24 | 7.2 |
| Primary | 131 | 39.2 |
| Small Schools | 8 | 2.4 |
| Secondary | 163 | 48.8 |
| Other | 8 | 2.4 |
| | 334 | 100.0 |

The group were divided almost equally on whether or not their training had prepared them adequately for work in their Central School. Amongst the written responses were 89 from teachers who did not see their training as adequate. These teachers pointed to a need for special emphasis in training courses on teaching in Central Schools. They stressed that training did not prepare them for teaching out of their 'area', that it did not prepare them for being the sole teacher in a subject area and that it did not contain a relevant practice teaching component. They pointed out that learning on the job from experienced staff, where available, was the means by which most coped.

An indication of how many teachers were teaching 'out of their area' is given in Table 3.

### TABLE 3: TEACHERS TEACHING OUT OF AREA

| | | SUBJECT AREA TAUGHT | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Subject/area for which trained | One other subject/ area | More than one other subject/ area | |
| TRAINING | Primary | 124 | 40 | 0 | 164 |
| | Secondary | 81 | 49 | 46 | 176 |
| | Both | 3 | 1 | 0 | 4 |
| | | 208 | 90 | 46 | 344 |

This table reveals that a substantial number of teachers were teaching in an area/subject/section for which they were not trained, in some cases crossing the 'boundary' into a section of the school outside their area of training (eg from Primary to Secondary). Amongst the 46 teachers who were having to cope with two or more extra areas were an English teacher taking Needlework in the Secondary department with Primary/Infants Music, and an Industrial Arts teacher who also taught Music and Physical Education.

In teasing out the implications of these findings a number of issues emerge. The first of these concerns curriculum development and curriculum adaptation. As is pointed out in the NSW Education Commission's study of Central Schools (1987, p 23) teaching in smaller rural schools requires teachers, who are often young and inexperienced, to adapt the curriculum to suit the needs and interests of their rural pupils, and to plan and implement programs in areas with which they are unfamiliar or which are outside their area/s of expertise, often without the expertise and guidance of more experienced members of staff. The Commonwealth Schools Commission, in its recent publication Schooling in Rural Australia (1987, p 86) points out that a "major challenge for schools is how to ensure that teaching programs are as inclusive as possible of the background experiences of all students" and suggests that this can be achieved by "making the curriculum locally relevant", bringing students into "close and regular contact with their own community and region so that they can understand, appreciate and evaluate their local environment and culture". These considerations greatly emphasise the need in pre-service teacher education programs for courses and experiences which will develop in prospective teachers (the majority of whom are urban-based) an understanding and appreciation of rural cultures and lifestyles. Such courses, once a regular part of pre-service programs, have been largely curtailed in recent times.

A second issue that relates to curriculum arises if we take seriously the Commonwealth Schools Commission's call for a "broad" curriculum that is "non-specialist and is concerned with those concepts and skills which are useful in a wide variety of areas" (1987, p 86). An examination of teachers' work and curriculum offerings in Central Schools leads us to question whether teachers, especially secondary teachers, are being given a sufficiently broad preparation to enable them to meet these challenges.

A third issue to surface has to do with the lines that separate work in the K-6 section of the school from that done in Yrs 7-10 or 7-12. The Education Commission points out that "There is a widely-held view that the Central School, as a microcosm of the education system, should be an ideal environment for the implementation of K-12 curricula" 1987, p 27). Our study of Western Region Central Schools and especially of the data that fed into the summary given as Table 3 revealed that in practice this happens less than would be hoped. We feel that more support could be given to teachers in Central Schools through their pre-service preparation and through the circumstances of their appointment and in-service support to enable the Central Schools to realise their potential as natural laboratories for curriculum innovation.

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## 13.3 PROGRESS OR PERISH: AIDS, ADOLESCENTS, AND APATHY.

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### INTRODUCTION

Public awareness and fear of AIDS in Australia was promoted by the "Grim Reaper" advertisement in April 1987. Since this government initiative numerous current affairs television programs, radio programs, newspaper and magazine articles have debated the issues and informed the public. With some researchers projecting one million sufferers (world wide) by 1991 and no cure in sight, educational programs need to be urgently evolved to educate the public and high risk groups. The need for these programs amongst emerging sexually active adolescents is particularly critical since we know that the AIDS virus can be dormant for an average of 4 to 5 years. Such educational programs need to provide adolescents with knowledge of high risk behaviour and means of prevention, as soon as possible. However, they need to be based on a knowledge of what adolescents already know about AIDS and Sexually Transmitted Diseases (STDS). Further, they need to be theoretically linked to developmental psychology so as to optimize their impact.

The first goal of this study was to survey adolescents' attitudes and knowledge about AIDS and STDS. This had been done by two major studies in America by Price, Desmond and Kukulka (1985) and by Di Clemente, Zorn and Temoshok (1986) who studied adolescents in San Francisco. Both studies report a general lack of knowledge about AIDS and an increasing percentage of respondents who are afraid of contracting AIDS. Two Australian surveys found similar results to the American studies, one, A Morgan Gallup Poll (May 1987) found that 70% of its sample of 14-19 year old females thought that AIDS was a serious problem. However, no published studies could be found on Australian adolescents' knowledge of and attitudes toward AIDS.

The second goal of this study was to investigate some theoretical constructs in relation to adolescents' views about AIDS. Erikson (1963) considers the major psychosocial milestone during adolescence to be the development of an identity, by which he meant a coherent sense of self based on a commitment to present and future roles, ideology, and values with respect to interpersonal relationships. Identity is seen as developing through four distinct statuses according to Marcia (1966). This present study investigated whether there were any relationships between the statuses of identity diffusion, foreclosure, moratorium and achievement, and adolescents' knowledge of and attitudes toward AIDS. It was hypothesised that an identity achiever status adolescent would have more understanding of the AIDS problem, be more responsible for his or her own behaviour and be more likely to have developed strategies and attitudes toward dealing with potential sex partners who may present a high risk of infection.

Research on adolescent behaviour suggests links between low self-esteem and self destructive behaviour. For example, Chilman (1977) found that the sexually active adolescent girls who do not use contraceptives tend to have feelings of powerlessness and a low sense of personal competence. On the basis of these links it was hypothesized that there will be a positive relationship between adolescent self-esteem and responsible attitudes to AIDS precautions.

## METHOD

In the present survey, respondents were 374 volunteer year 10 students from four secondary schools in the Ballarat region. (Median age = 15 years). All students were administered a 19 item AIDS questionnaire which was designed to measure knowledge of and attitudes toward AIDS and STD prevention from within the framework of identity theory. The Adolescent Identity Status Questionnaire (AISQ) and the How I See Myself Questionnaire were administered to measure identity status and self-esteem respectively.

## RESULTS

Responses to the AIDS questionnaire suggested levels of apathy, irresponsibility, denial and ignorance which are of concern. Some examples are as follows. Thirty-eight percent of respondents agreed that the possibility catching AIDS was something they had never thought about. Thirty-seven percent agreed with or were uncertain about the statement 'Life is full of risks and AIDS and STDs are just some examples, if you don't take risks you don't have any fun.' About one third felt that AIDS was of no concern to them as their friends were not the types to be carriers. Over 40 percent were unaware that treatment for STDs may still be necessary even if the symptoms disappear. On the positive side, most (83 percent) knew that condoms could be used to prevent the spread of AIDS and STDs, and 63 percent agreed that in their next sexual encounter a condom would be used (although 32 percent were uncertain and 5 percent disagreed).

A six factor solution was produced when the AIDS questionnaire items were subjected to a principal components factor analysis with varimax rotation. These factors reflected a range of attitudes about taking precautions with respect to AIDS. The major factor, Apathy, loaded heavily on items suggesting that the respondents had never really thought about AIDS, had not done anything about taking precautions, and felt that not much could be done anyway. The second largest factor, Anti-Precautions, loaded most strongly on items reflecting distaste at the thought of using condoms, and a reticence to discuss such issues with a partner. Further factors were Mature Responsibility, Pro-Condom Attitudes, Conflict about Precautions, and Denial/Conservatism. Lower levels of Mature Responsibility and higher scores on the Anti-Precautions and Denial/Conservatism factors were found for boys.

Factor scores were meaningfully related to identity status and self-esteem. Apathy, Anti-Precautions, Conflict and Denial/Conservatism showed negative relationships with identity achievement while positive relationships were shown with the Mature Responsibility and Pro-Condom factors. Self-esteem in the cognitive domain related negatively to the Conflict and Anti-Precautions factors, and positively to Mature Responsibility.

## DISCUSSION.

The major finding of this investigation was that adolescents' responses to AIDS reflect attitudes of apathy and a rejection of precautionary behaviour, and that these attitudes are related to level of maturity and self-esteem. Current Victorian education programs need to address this problem, by relating AIDS education to adolescents' maturity levels and evolving strategies to attack 'the personal fable' mode of thinking (the belief that 'it can't happen to me'). More specifically, some further implications of this study are that:

1. education programs should address the realistic probability of catching AIDS, so as to enable a personal relevance to be established. Generalized fear arousing communications per se are inadequate, and tend to alienate teenagers and increase levels of apathy as they overstate risks, do not target specific audiences, and do not present useful information or models of safe behaviour.

2. education programs need to work toward changing attitudes to more realistic and open interpersonal interactions about sex and the use of condoms;

3. education programs in the area of personal development need to facilitate adolescent identity status development. Such programs could include discussions and values clarification exercises in relation to a wide range of social and ideological issues;

4. education programs should continue to promote cognitive self-esteem to empower adolescents with the sense of being able to cope in the real world, and access information that is relevant to them.

5. teachers, teacher educators and trainee teachers need to be inserviced to decrease apathy and facilitate greater community and adolescent awareness of the risk of AIDS and the precautions that can be taken.

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13.4

# MATURE AGED STUDENTS IN TERTIARY INSTITUTIONS - THEIR ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE AND ITS EFFECT ON OTHERS

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This paper addresses three issues:

1. The academic performance of mature aged students and schoolleavers.

2. The effects of the student role on other adult roles e.g. parenting and/or partnering and

3. The types of teaching styles, and assessment items that mature aged students prefer and an analysis of their classroom participation rates.

## Methodology

The cohort of students enrolling in the (then) six colleges of Sydney CAE in 1987 are the subjects of this longitudinal study. One group, (120 participants) born in 1969, are defined as schoolleavers and are compared with the group of students aged twenty five or older at enrolment (224 participants). Whilst the schoolleavers completed only questionnaires, the mature aged students have completed two questionnaires (one each semester) as well as being individually interviewed for an hour concerning their academic and private roles.

The students enrolled in courses lasting from one to four years. The schoolleavers were absent from the post graduate courses, such as the Diploma of Education, but are a representative sample of all the other courses at Sydney CAE. One Institute (ITATE) had only mature aged students and thus serves as a contrast to the other five mixed age group campuses.

## Overview

Academic performance rates of students indicate that maturity appears as an asset in those courses requiring global insights such as Philosophy or Child Studies, but may be a handicap when attempting Mathematical or Scientific courses due to changes in methods.

Mature aged students tend to outperform schoolleavers and gain a disproportionate number of Distinctions. Yet mature aged students frequently rationalise that the time and effort required to gain high marks may be placing stresses on other roles such as work, partnering, domestic duties and/or parenting. Cycles are evident when mature aged students rationally evaluate that high academic performance may not be worth relegating other roles to second place.

The pressures to succeed include a) justifying their full time study, especially when the could be working for pay or full time parent. b) justifying the economic costs of studying in terms of books and equipment. Frequently there is some degree of dependency on others (the state, parents and/or partner) for providing shelter, food etc. during study, even when the student budgeted for full time study in the period before enrolment. **c)** adjusting to social status alteration. Adults are expected to be economically independent and viable or else to be a full time parent. Full time study is appropriate for schoolleavers, but can create problems of economics and prestige for adults. Male participants were especially aware of their loss of status and income although previously independent females were also acutely aware of status loss and **d)** defining the need to attain credentials by studying as superordinate to other needs such as working or participating in family life.

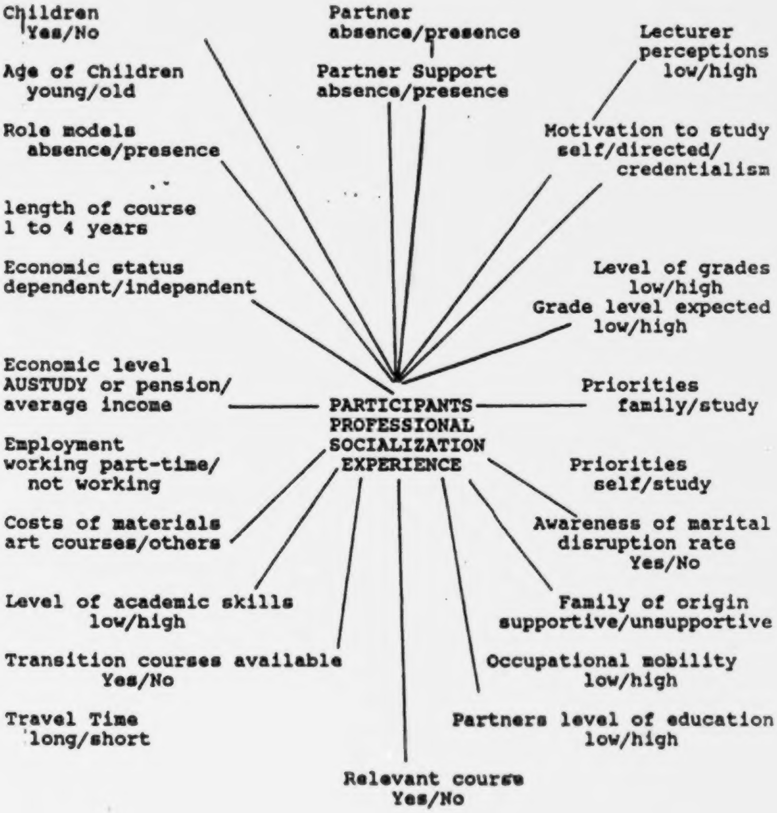
The ideological justification for attempting full time study is based upon the rationalisations of the students during their interviews. Social mobility is a key variable as most mature aged students tend to be moving socially upward as compared to their partners, parents or siblings. Marital status affects performance as parenting and partnering require a lot of time and effort. The career salience of partners becomes a key variable as those participants who were not receiving support from their kin were pressurised into putting their study needs aside in order to comply with the wishes of other family members. Single mature aged students tend to be far more intrinsically motivated than do partnered respondents, who, inturn, tend to have enrolled for job related reasons and thus choose vocational courses.

The rationale for the high level performance of many mature aged students is explored. An analysis of tutorial participation, preparation time, assessment items, research orientation and attitudes towards the staff were examined. Schoolleavers and mature aged students have different orientations to college which broadly speaking, concern their rates of participation in non-academic activities. The older students tend to use their time at college constructively in order to minimise disruption to their homelife.

The tendency for housepersons to become "feminist" is a major facator that contributes to the high divorce/separation rates of mature aged students. However, many of the mature aged students are becoming upwardly mobile and this can be interpreted by the partner as increased independence from them, hence the emergence of derision attached to the student role by ego threatened partners of either gender. Students tend to minimise this by downgrading their performance e.g. they underplay their achievements saying they "passed" when they really got distinctions, or, more critically, they radically reduce the hours spent on researching assignments and rationalise that the time is better spent on family activities as this reduces the pressures, although it is self alienating.

Teacher educators need to be aware of the rationale for schoolleavers and mature aged students in regard to their expectations of the course and their motivations to perform well. Mature aged students frequently enter college with high expectations of academic performance by lecturers. Over time they become more realistic but they are vocal if concerns arise and they are usually vocationally orientated, so deride classes which are not "on the topic" or of obvious use-value in their career.

This paper will address the rationale for mature aged students participation and indicate, with graphs, the differences between schoolleaver and mature aged students in attitudes to study and classroom performance.


Children Yes/No
Partner absence/presence
Lecturer perceptions low/high
Age of Children young/old
Partner Support absence/presence
Role models absence/presence
Motivation to study self/directed/ credentialism
length of course 1 to 4 years
Economic status dependent/independent
Level of grades low/high
Grade level expected low/high
Economic level AUSTUDY or pension/ average income
PARTICIPANTS PROFESSIONAL SOCIALIZATION EXPERIENCE
Priorities family/study
Employment working part-time/ not working
Priorities self/study
Costs of materials art courses/others
Awareness of marital disruption rate Yes/No
Level of academic skills low/high
Family of origin supportive/unsupportive
Transition courses available Yes/No
Occupational mobility low/high
Travel Time long/short
Partners level of education low/high
Relevant course Yes/No

orientated, so deride classes which are not "on the topic" or of obvious use-value in their career.

This paper will address the rationale for mature aged students participation and indicate, with graphs, the differences between schoolleaver and mature aged students in attitudes to study and classroom performance.

13·5

# EXPERIMENTS IN PEER SUPERVISION OF INSERVICE TEACHERS

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This paper presents an analysis of eleven experiments conducted by teachers enrolled in a clinical supervision training course at Nepean College of Advanced Education. It defines the clinical process most commonly used, reports on outcomes cited by participating supervisors and considers their recommendations for (a) the implementation of school based supervision programs, (b) the dissemination of the clinical supervision model and (c) the improvement of instruction.

## BACKGROUND

The subjects of this analysis completed a training course in clinical supervision in the autumn semester of 1987. There were fourteen participants in the course: one school principal, one executive teacher and twelve assistant teachers. One of the assistant teachers worked with a student teacher while the other eleven practised with inservice peers. This report summarises the processes used by these eleven teachers and considers the outcomes and recommendations arising from their experimentation with clinical supervision of peer teachers. Table 1 describes the group with regard to grade levels, years of experience of the teacher being supervised, implementation of the recommended format of clinical supervision and the number of supervision cycles completed in each experiment.

TABLE 1

STRUCTURE OF THE GROUP

| SUBJECT | FORMAT | SUPERVISION CYCLES | TEACHER EXPERIENCE | GRADE |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | / | 2 | 3 | K |
| 2 | / | 2 | 10+ | F |
| 3 | / | 4 | 3 | 3 |
| 4 | / | 4 | 4 | 6 |
| 5 | / | 3 | 1,4 | F,5 |
| 6 | / | 3 | 9 | 4 |
| 7 | / | 4 | 2 | 1 |
| 8 | / | 5 | 11 | 6 |
| 9 | / | 3 | 5 | 7-10 PE |
| 10 | / | 3 | 1 | 4 |
| 11 | / | 4 | 4 | 5 |

## PREPARATION

The training course basic to the experiments analysed in this paper is conducted in the final semester of the conversion component of the Bachelor of Education (Primary) program. The course comprises lectures, workshops, simulations and the analysis of videotaped models. It includes a major project where students experiment with clinical supervision and prepare a detailed report on their efforts.

The format referred to in Table 1 and followed by all experimenters is based upon the establishment of rapport and the understanding of the principles and processes of clinical supervision by both teacher and supervisor. These conditions precede a series of cycles of planning conferences, classroom observations and feedback conferences. (Acheson and Gall, 1987, 13). All subjects followed these procedures. The need for rapport influenced their choices of peer teacher and indeed their decision to experiment with an inservice peer rather than a preservice student teacher.

## PROCESSES

All subjects based their experiments on the teaching concerns of their chosen peers. These concerns included conducting classroom discussions, responding, questioning, giving instructions, increasing levels of pupil involvement in discussions, coping with management problems, using reinforcement, managing reading groups and developing teacher-pupil rapport. They were treated through cooperative effort and discussions on the basis of objective data collected during the observations of teacher behaviours derived from the concerns. Table 2 outlines the range of data collection instruments used in these experiments.

TABLE 2

OBSERVATION INSTRUMENTS

| Subject | Cycles | Verbatim | At Task | Anec. Record | Audio | Pupil Response Sheet | Seating Chart RF | Tally RF | SKOR | Teacher Movement | Verbal Flow | FIAC |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | | 1 | | | | | | | |
| 2 | 2 | | 2 | | | | | | | | | |
| 3 | 4 | | 2 | | 2 | | | | | | | |
| 4 | 4 | 3 | | | | 3 | 2 | 1 | 1 | | | |
| 5 | 3 | | 1 | | | | | | | 1 | 1 | |
| 6 | 3 | | 2 | 1 | | | | | | | | |
| 7 | 4 | | 2 | 1 | | | | | | 1 | | |
| 8 | 5 | 3 | | | | | | 1 | | | | 1 |
| 9 | 3 | | | | | | | | | 3 | | |
| 10 | 3 | | 1 | 1 | | | | | | 1 | | |
| 11 | 4 | | 4 | | | | | | | | | |
| TOTAL | 37 | 7 | 15 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 6 | 1 | 1 |

Subsequent to the collection of data, feedback conferences were conducted in all cases. These led to the joint determination of teaching strategies and independent practice prior to subsequent observations.

## OUTCOMES

The most common outcomes reported related to attitudes and professional growth of participants in the experiments.
All subjects commented on the growth of positive attitudes to supervision. In fact, several reported requests from their teachers to continue the process beyond the period of experimentation. Both supervisors and teachers commented upon the consolidation of an existing rapport and feelings of satisfaction at perceptible growth in competence. These comments consolidate the findings of Gillett and Khamis (1987, 5) that

supervisors experienced high levels of involvement and positive attitudes along with growth in teaching and supervising capabilities. They also allay some of the fears of Tisher (1987, 88) about the effects of supervision training programs.

Teachers seemed to appreciate the increase in their own awareness of processes and events in their classrooms. They were learning to analyse their performances and, according to their supervisors, develop appropriate skills for self-evaluation. Further, they were expressing a desire to utilise these skills. They were learning to "see rather than be told" what was happening in their classroom, as one subject reported.

Improved instructional performance was claimed by all experimenters for the teachers with whom they worked. Further, a vicarious effect on the teaching skills of the supervisors was also cited. This is consistent with earlier reports of mutual growth in the supervision diad. (Gillett & Khamis, 1987).

## RECOMMENDATIONS

The need for clear supervision policies in schools was identified by several experimenters. They felt that clinical processes should (must) be introduced to alter teachers' attitudes to supervision. Krajewski's (1983, 47) contention that "rapport nurturance is the key to success" was embraced as a justification for peer supervision within these policies.

The experimenters referred to a need to work with inexperienced teachers; to provide substantial professional support for beginning teachers. They felt that this support should be provided by peers rather than "authority figures" within the school. This logic is consistent with the claim of Santaniello (1983, 11) that colleagues in this process should be "at the same professional level". It may be inspired to some extent, however, by the fact that the dissemination of clinical supervision is through young teachers rather than senior staff. Many schools have teachers of less than ten years experience who are familiar with the clinical process and have sufficient experience in teaching to become excellent mentors for beginning teachers in their schools. The support these mentors could offer should provide the young teacher with the opportunity to "become the teacher (she) wishes to be" (Lerch, 1980, 239) without direct intervention by the authorities in the school administration. This implies a structured approach to professional development where teams of compatible peers assist one another in improving instruction, operating within policy guidelines for which school administrators are responsible.

The problem of time (so frequently cited as a barrier to the implementation of clinical supervision programs in schools) could be attacked, according to one experimenter, by ensuring that "those who have the time be those who are initiated into clinical supervision". Expressed differently this idea could suggest that school policies on utilization of relief from face-to-face staff could be aligned with supervision policies. In this way times could be created for peer supervision teams to operate. Young executives, trained in clinical supervision could also work with inexperienced teachers in the school. These teachers could then become active members of peer supervision teams, setting up a generating process of supervision with the school.

This thought leads to another common recommendation from the experiments. Clinical supervisors need to be trained. Ashton et.al. (1983, 23) refer to the trend for school based training. The experiments analysed here also suggest the dissemination of the process through peer influence. Formal training programs, then, could provide stimuli for an expansion of internal supervision programs for schools. The Nepean program for example, was conceived as a means of preparing supervising teachers for the practicum. Maybe a more immediate effect would be realised if the direction were to shift towards the preparation of inservice supervisors. As Wragg (1984,206) notes, "the challenge to nurture the professional skills .. of the present cohort of practising teachers must be an equally vital assignment".

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13.6.1

# PERCEPTIONS OF SECONDARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS OF THE PURPOSE AND EFFECTS OF A DISTRICT WIDE STAFF DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM FOR TEACHERS

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## INTRODUCTION

One characteristic of effective schools is a schoolwide staff development (inservice) program that involves the entire professional staff and relates to the instructional program of the school (Purkey and Smith, 1983). The role of the principal (headmaster) especially as he/she leads the staff in inservice activities has a profound effect on the outcome.

The role of the principal as the educational leader of the school has come under intense scrutiny during the 1980's. This has resulted in a redefining of the role and the establishment of the principal as key to the improvement of schools (Featherstone, 1986; Barth, 1982; Rodriguez and Johnstone, 1986; Sweeney, 1982; Persell and Crookson, 1982; Debevoise, 1984; Mangieri and Arnn, 1985; Cohn and Rossmiller, 1987; etc.).

Increasingly, school districts are establishing inservice programs for teachers. These programs are designed to bring about certain changes in the teachers and the school and the principal is charged with the task of managing the expected changes. The principal's perception of the program often determines the outcome. Often principals are not a part of the planning of inservice programs for teachers. Because of this, expectations that principals hold for the inservice program may, in fact, be contrary to the stated goals of the program.

The central purpose of this research was to investigate the impact of an inservice program designed for teachers by exploring the perceptions of 12 secondary school principals in a large urban school district. The results of this study certainly have implications for developed countries as well as in less developed countries. Simmons and Alexander (1978) reviewing research on production functions in less developed countries said "the same variables found to be significant (or nonsignificant) in developed countries also appear to be significant (or nonsignificant) in LDCs " (Less Developed Countries).

## SETTING AND SUBJECTS

This investigation took place in a large urban school district of 42,000 students, 14,000 of whom attend 11 comprehensive high schools and one special school, grades 9 through 12. The subjects of the study were 12 secondary school building principals (all male) with a wide range of experiences (5 to 21+ years) who had already undergone a district-operated program of training in instructional leadership. In addition, these principals worked with experienced staffs of teachers (10 to 35 years of service) who had been involved in intensive staff development activities during the preceeding five years.

## INSTRUMENTATION

Data were collected from the 12 principals through structured individual interviews. The questions were designed to elicit responses that reflected judgements about the staff development program in which most of the principals had not helped to plan. Before developing the interview protocol, the researchers familiarized themselves with the goals, objectives, and methods used in the staff development program. In addition, discussions were held with the leaders and planners of the program to determine congruency with what was written and what was understood.

The interview questionnaire was organized to elicit information about:

1. What principals expected to happen as a result of the staff development program;
2. What adminstrative problems were created and how much of their time was diverted from their usual duties to make the program work;
3. How much support they received to help make the program a success; and
4. What happened that wasn't expected.

## PROCEDURES

A letter was sent to each principal presenting background information, purpose of the study, the promise of confidentiality, and a copy of the questions to be asked. All interviews were conducted on site by the two authors. Each interview lasted from one and one-half to two-plus hours. All interviews were audio-taped, and each researcher also took copious notes.

After each interview, a summary was prepared from the researchers' notes and the audio-tapes. The summary was sent to each principal for verification of accuracy. A composite summary was made after receiving a verification of accuracy statement from each principal.

## DATA ANALYSIS

More than 24 hours of taped interviews were analyzed. Statements indicating principals' perceptions of the inservice program were transcribed verbatim to determine if the expectations the principals had for the staff development program were congruent with the stated goals and what effects the program had on their time. In addition, an attempt was made to analyze the summary data using Miles' Eight Schools of Thought on organizational effectiveness (Scientific Management, Human Relations, Socio-technical, Organizational Development, Micro-economics, Goal Attainment, Systems Model, Integrated Model). Miles (1980) notes that scholars have been unable to determine organizational effectiveness because criteria for determining effectiveness are a function of the school of thought.

Statements, thoughts, and ideas generated through the interview process were matched to an appropriate school of thought. For example, if a principal expected the staff development program to have some effect on student performance (make teachers more responsive to student needs and help teachers to reduce discipline problems), the perception was coded as indicating a Goal Attainment school of thought, suggesting that the administrator might view effectiveness in terms of ends rather than means.

## RESULTS

The purpose of this study was to analyze the general perceptions of the secondary school principals concerning the staff development program implemented by the school district and to identify predominate "schools of thought" embraced by the principals. The following summarize the findings.

### Expectations

According to *the leaders and planners* of the program, the staff development program was designed to: (a) refresh the teachers' teaching skills; (b) expand the teachers knowledge about new developments in their content area; and (c) increase the teachers awareness of the complexities of modern youth culture. All 12 principals had different expectations as to what the program was designed to do. For example, one principal expected the program to develop a common language, while another expected the program to reduce discipline problems. Some of the principals questioned the value of the staff development program, especially as it related to the concept of individualization of instruction.

### Time

Principals believed that the staff development program placed an added burden on their time. Traditional expectations, such as community leadership, were suffering from lack of attention. Paperwork had increased and much of it was seen as duplication.

### Support

Most of the principals felt that they had moral support from central administration and the Board of Education but they lacked the resources necessary to institute a new program that required so much attention.

### Unexpected Outcomes

These principals were under so much pressure to function as instructional leaders that they developed a tendency to overreact, causing them not to see the relationship between what was expected from the program and other routine duties. Nevertheless, the improvements observed in how teachers taught and in the overall discipline of students was seen as an unexpected outcome of this inservice program.

## Summary - Schools of Thought

These principals viewed their job as complex and very much related to the scientific management school of thought (control and efficiency). In addition, they viewed sound organizational practices, such as good inter-organizational/institutional communications and teamwork as contributing to the efficient management and control of their school. Aspects of effectiveness that moved away from their vision were seen as obstacles that were non-productive. Principals seemed to view a good school as one that has good communication and teamwork and provides for interfacing between individuals and the organization. Anything that detracted from this condition was viewed as unproductive.

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# 13.6.2 BEGINNING READING IN THIRD WORLD COUNTRIES

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Traditional practices for teaching reading are being called to task in the United States as more information concerning the child and how s/he processes print becomes available. This fact in itself casts doubt on the wisdom of transferring the use of these methods, and the types of materials which support them, to encourage literacy in developing countries. This presentation deals with an inexpensive but effective means of increasing literacy at the grass roots level in third world countries, one which is not dependent on the high-tech, slick approaches often advocated in the Western world. It is proposed as an important item for consideration on the "agenda for research and development in education personnel development." While it deals with a specific methodology, useful to pre- and in-service teachers, it also includes implications for involving the private sector in providing the materials suggested.

In most developing countries, learning to read is important to learners only in as much as the ability to read is the sign of an educated person, a relatively abstract reward for children in the primary grades to understand. For the majority of learners, particularly in rural areas, reading is functional only in the school setting, since print resources in the community are extremely limited, if available at all.

One must then question whether learners in developing countries seriously consider that learning to read is worth the effort. Unlike learners in print-oriented societies, it seems that the learners in many developing countries are unlikely to be really impressed with the "need" for reading as a communication process. Beginning reading activities, to have any appreciable effect, should focus on experiences which use the learner's own language as a print base. This is nothing new, of course. Sylvia Ashton-Warner's experiences in working with Maori children in New Zealand decades ago still provide excellent guidelines on this topic.

This presentation demonstrates a system of teaching literacy which builds upon and uses what learners know about their language and some enjoyable aspects of their own world. The system uses a resource common to all countries and ethnic groups, and one therefore available for converting into print form: their oral folk literature. This body of stories, sayings, chants, and the like are excellent raw materials for helping learners make the transition from oral language to print literacy for many reasons. For one, much of the folk literature is already familiar to the learners with whom it has been shared orally. Many learners in third-world countries (rich or poor) still have access to individuals who perform the role of story-teller, perhaps older persons who have much time and patience to share tales from this repository of the region's lore. Secondly the stories have psychological and cultural values, and are short, exciting, and to the point. Finally, folk tales are simple in language and structure, often repetitive, and always true to the spoken form.

The production of a variety of print resources is essential in the development and maintenance of general literacy in a nation. In schools the daily production of print as it relates to learners' oral language and to their experiences is essential. Since paper costs are typically prohibitive in developing countries, the publication of the type of folk material described above might be in the form of "chapbooks." Chapbooks, the forerunner of the dime novel in the western world, were common in the early 19th century. Published and marketed in large quantities, they were 12- to 16-page booklets generally accessible to children as well as adults because they were quite cheap, easy to read, and they contained popular content. This presentation illustrates how the production of such materials can be accomplished, using the folk literature of a culture to provide a particularly relevant print resource for both children and adults who are learning to read.

# 13.6.3 The Continuity between Preschool and Primary Education: Problems and Promising Practices

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An international concern in early childhood education is the continuity, or lack of continuity, between pre-school* programs and the primary grades. A UNESCO survey of 67 countries found that "Most countries refer to the problem posed by the relations between the pre-school institution and compulsory education (Mialaret, 1976, p.51). This is not a new problem - both the 1908 and 1929 yearbooks of the National Society for the Study of Education addressed this issue. However, recent societal trends have resulted in more children participating in preschool programs. This in turn, has had implications for preservice training, staffing, and in-service professional development of preschool and primary education personnel.

This paper presents (a) a brief overview of some of the societal needs which impact on early education, (b) areas of discontinuity between preschool and primary education, and (c) a synthesis of some promising international practices to facilitate and improve the continuity between preschool and primary education.

## Societal Needs and their Impact on Preschool

The most significant societal trend related to early childhood programs has been the increasing labour force participation rate of women, especially mothers of young children. Various social commentators have termed this "a demographic reality of tremendous import" (Zigler & Gordon, 1982, p. v) and "the most significant phenomenon of the twentieth century" (Kamerman & Kahn, 1981, p.5) By the mid-1970's, "labor force participation was the model pattern for adult women in almost all industrialized countries" (Kamerman & Kahn, 1981, p.4) with the percentage of working mothers increasing even more dramatically. As one example of this, in Canada the labour force participation rate for women increased from 45% in 1976 to 55% in 1986. However, for women with children under age three the rate increased from 32% to 56% and for those with children three to five years old, it increased from 41% to 62% (Statistics Canada, 1986). This trend is projected to continue until the end of this century (Brown, 1982).

Two other societal trends of the 1960's and 70's that impacted on preschool education, especially in North America and Europe, were (a) the use of preschool programs as a means to redress inequalities and social problems and (b) the broadening of the traditional goals of preschool programs from an emphasis on children's social and cognitive development to include health, nutrition, and a variety of family concerns. These trends do not seem to have had as great an impact on compulsory education as on preschool education where the demand and need as well as the number and types of programs have increased dramatically in the past 20 years. And in turn, "interest in the continuity of young children's experiences has intensified over recent years as the number, and range of facilities for pre-school education and care have increased" (Cleave, Jowett, & Bate, 1982, p. 1).

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* "Preschool" as used in this paper, is defined as "the years between birth and compulsory school age" (Centre for Educational Research and Innovation, 1977, p.46).

### Areas of Discontinuity

Early childhood educators (e.g., Honig, 1986 & Woodhead 1979) view the need for continuity between preschool and compulsory education as one of great importance. For example, Caldwell (1986) has commented that "Continuity between early childhood and elementary education programs should be as normal and routine as continuity between 2nd and 3rd grades. In most educational settings, however, this is definitely not the case" (p.36). Four areas of discontinuity relevant for teacher education are: (a) different training background and qualification requirements for pre-school and primary personnel, (b) differing educational philosophies and curricula, (c) lack of on-going communication between preschool and primary personnel, and (d) different administrative structures and organization.

In most developed countries, it seems that preschool and primary programs are typically housed in different locations, administered and funded by different governmental agencies, and are run by teachers trained at different training institutions for different lengths of time to meet differing qualifications and who may of time have different educational philosophies and curricula. In addition, these teachers have little or no contact with one another on either a professional or informal basis. Therefore, it is not surprising that the potential for discontinuity between the preschool and primary levels is so great and that it is a concern to early childhood educators. However, this is not to imply that efforts are not being made to address these concerns in practical ways.

## Some Promising Practices to Promote Preschool and Primary Continuity

### Training and Qualifications

In many countries, preschool personnel are trained at community colleges or preschool institutes and primary personnel at universities, normal schools, or teacher training institutes. In addition, there are usually different qualifications required for certification at the preschool and primary levels. In his survey of western European countries, Woodhead (1979) reported that "nearly two-thirds were found to have professional divisions which were likely to discourage cooperation; divisions in training, status, salary and conditions of work. Pre-school teachers were often recruited younger and with lower entry qualifications, training was often shorter, and status lower "(p. 125). The problem is that "where such divisions exist and continue genuine cooperation and interaction and successful integration of the two sectors will not succeed beyond the superficial level" (van der Eyken, 1982 p. 63).

A Council of Europe report (1979) recommended that there be "common elements in the training of both preschool and primary teachers...to give them understanding of the aims and methods of both" (p. 100). The Netherlands have been integrating teacher training for the preschool and primary levels and Finland has been unifying the training of teachers for ages 0-6. In a few Canadian universities such as the University of Victoria, students can work on their preschool and elementary school certification concurrently within the same faculty. Another training option of joint in-service training for preschool and primary personnel has been recommended in Europe (Council of

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Europe, 1979), Canada (Mayfield et al, 1981) and for developing countries (Heron, 1979). The availability of easily accessible and recognized in-service training could facilitate teachers' progress on an early childhood career ladder, such as the one developed in California (Machado & Meyer, 1984). Several states and provinces in North America are providing distance in-service instruction to preschool and primary teachers via courses on educational television and by correspondence courses which include audio and video tapes as well as print materials.

## Educational Philosophies and Curricula

Another area responsible for discontinuity between preschool and primary education can be the differing philosophies at these two levels which is seen in their curricula. Van der Eyken (1982) noted that "it has often been pointed out that the transition from pre-school to primary education reflects a movement from childhood to pupildom, from a 'child-centred' philosophy to a 'school-oriented' philosophy" (p.63). A Council of Europe report (1979) recommended that member states "seek to establish a common curriculum extending through both the preschool and primary stages of education" (p.98). Although this is much easier said than done, the most common approach to this task seems to have been philosophical or administrative. The philosophical approach entrails the development and dissemination of documents such as Philosophy, Goals and Program Dimensions by Alberta Education (1984) in Canada and Developmentally Appropriate Practice in Early Childhood Programs Serving Children from Birth through Age 8 by the National Association for the Education of Young Children (Bredekamp, 1987) in the U.S. The actual curricula implemented based on such documents can vary widely with individual teacher's interpretation and implementation skills. The second approach is to administratively integrate "the first year of primary school into the pre-school institutions (Dominican Republic, Iran, Malta) or by integrating two years of pre-school education into the primary school (Jordan)... the former tends to prolong the methods and techniques of pre-school education, whereas the latter tends to make pre-school education more formal" (Mialaret, 1979, p. 52). Neither the philosophical nor administrative approach to reconciling philosophical and curricular differences seems particularly effective in and of itself.

## On-going Communication

In a survey of preschool, kindergarten and grade 1 teachers in British Columbia (Mayfield et al, 1981), this researcher found that the majority of kindergarten and preschool teachers indicated there was a need to establish closer contacts with each other. The same was true between kindergarten and grade 1 teachers; however, only one-third of the grade 1 teachers wanted closer contacts with preschool. A majority of school and district administrators supported preschool-kindergarten - grade 1 contacts. This study concluded that the teachers were willing, the administration was supportive but that actual mechanics and procedures to establish this contact on an on-going basis were lacking.

Although there are sometimes professional groups or governmental committees that meet on a regular basis to discuss articulation between preschool and primary education at a provincial/state level (e.g., Alberta, Canada) or national level (e.g., Sweden), there is typically little or no organized effort at the local or regional levels. The initiation and continuation of preschool-primary contacts seems to depend on the individual teachers.

Lack of on-going communication is unfortunate in that it limits the information and discussion that might help provide for smoother transitions between the years of early education. In addition, and perhaps a more immediate problem, is that this lack of contact does not facilitate some children's daily transitions between multiple settings; e.g., the child who attends a half-day kindergarten preceded and followed by a day care or out-of-school program. Some children have to make the adjustment between two or three programs which may have differing philosophies, curriculum and teaching strategies.

Some techniques that are being used to facilitate preschool-primary contact and communication include teachers visiting one another's classrooms, teachers exchanging classrooms for a week, teacher spending time in the preschool from which next year's class will come, visits by the children (individually or in groups) to another class, joint preschool-primary activities such as field trips, swimming lessons, fun fairs, jointly attended credit or non-credit courses or workshops, one-to-one conferences to discuss the children, etc. Some primary schools have found that when a preschool rents school space increased preschool-primary contact and communication result due in great part to propinquity.

## Administrative Structures and Organizations

A commonly identified obstacle to preschool primary continuity is that "administrative responsibility for the two sectors rests with different ministries" (Woodhead, 1979, p. 125) In some jurisdictions, different aspects of preschool and primary education may be the responsibility of four or five different ministries and/or departments. This can result in both overlapping and gapping services. A Council of Europe report (1979) recommended that member states "should plan to bring pre-school and primary education under the same ministry, since both stages are part of the same continuous process of education" (pp. 97-98). Although there has been no international ground swell to implement this recommendation, de facto examples of administrative re-organization exist. For example, in Britain, nursery schools attached to primary schools are the responsibility of the local education authority and the Department of Education and Science; and in the U.S. and Canada, there is a current trend for state or provincial departments of education to authorize the inclusion of four-year olds into the public school systems (Morado, 1986).

The multiple and complex interrelationships and responsibilities that exist among the various educational and social agencies make reform of the administrative structure difficult. There is also the danger of creating even more problems as according to van der Eyken (1982), "the administrative solution too often lies in placing all the elements in a container, shaking vigorously, and hoping the result will produce a palatable cocktail when, almost invariably, the outcome is, rather, an unappetising pot pourri" (p.90).

In summary, facilitating and improving the continuity between preschool and primary education is a complex issue. Although there are many promising practices being implemented, long-term change seems to require multiple efforts from the top-down, the bottom-up and the middle-sideways. These efforts need to be made in the areas of teacher training and qualifications, compatibility of educational philosophies and resulting curricula, increased and continuing communication among preschool and primary personnel at all levels and reform in the administrative structures responsible for early education.

13.6.4

# The Field Experience in Pre-Service Teacher Education : An international perspective

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Pre-service teacher training programmes come in a variety of content packages. A number of common elements can be found in these programmes and among these one of the most crucial and probably most controversial is the field experience component.

The content of pre-service programmes is often influenced by the particular conception or view of teaching that holds sway in a training institution. From the writing on conceptions of teaching a number of orientations can be identified. Zeichner (1986) describes four: behaviourist, traditional-craft, personalistic, and inquiry-oriented. While other writers describe and group views in different ways, it is quite clear there is no one universally accepted view of teaching. One consequence of this variation is that field experiences seem either to reflect the particular orientation in the parent institution or are implemented with little or no reference to views on teaching held by faculty members.

The field component is further complicated in that the training institution usually relies heavily on the good will of agencies and teachers, outside its direct control, for support of the field experience element of the programme.

It is not surprising then that in recent years there has been increasing concern about the effectiveness of field experiences for teacher trainees. This concern seems to be general across the Western World. New Zealand has not been able to stand apart from this disquiet about field experiences and the Department of Education recently commissioned an investigation of field experience practices in the country's six teacher training institutions. The report of that investigation is due shortly.

The author is currently undertaking an investigation of field experience programmes in a number of institutions in the United States and United Kingdom.

The paper resulting from these visits will attempt to identify common problems and issues and the factors that cause these. Unlike a review of the literature the author brings a personal viewpoint based on recent discussions at each of the overseas institutions to be visited.

The analysis will take place in a framework that identifies entry characteristics of the student group, general course structure, place of field experiences in the course, and programme philosophy (if any).

The concluding section will identify common problems and where appropriate comment on attempts to resolve these issues.

The accumulation of information from analytic descriptions of specific training programmes enhances the possibility that common features will be identified. These features may offer greater hope of sustainable solutions to specific problems in field experiences and teacher training generally than has been the case in the past.

13.7.1

# IMPROVING AND REFINING OPEN AND DISTANCE HIGHER EDUCATION THROUGH INNOVATIONS IN CURRICULUM, INSTRUCTION, AND EVALUATION

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## Introduction

The purpose of this paper is to present an integrated model for implementing programs in an open university system. In many countries represented at this conference, significant contributions to education have already been made through open and distance higher education. I hope through this paper to provide a rationale and strategies for refinement of existing practices so that there can be greater consistency and continuity in the operation of an open education system.

## Program Elements

The central purpose of open higher education is to provide opportunities for large numbers of students to enter into and to benefit from higher education. The geographic and demographic variations within the open-education student population are so great, however, that to achieve both equality and excellence while providing for the academic needs of students with such a wide range of social and economic backgrounds presents a special challenge. In fact, it cannot be done if only simplistic methods and linear models are used. Furthermore, success cannot be attained with either wholly traditional or untested creative innovations.

## Instruction

It is reasonable to say that in the last few years we have become quite sophisticated in designing instructional programs for specific types of learners and specific instructional media. We know more now than in the past about how to design self-instructional modules. We know a great deal about designing programs especially for radio education, television education, computer terminals, and computer-assisted instruction. We know more about the use of learning processes that are uniquely associated with different systems for delivering the same information.

Under the category of instruction, there is now abundant evidence from basic research that individualized instruction and mastery learning should be incorporated into open and distance education.

## Individualized Instruction

Individualized instruction requires that all curriculum content, skills, materials, and learning activities be adjusted to the specific learning needs and reading ability of each student. Each individual's program and schedule of courses is based on the student's ability, level of achievement, special professional expectations and related learning concerns, and needs for prerequisite knowledge.

Preassessment is necessary, of course, in order to establish a baseline for the learning that is to follow. The preassessment information is used in determining the point of program entry, course assignments, learning modules, grouping arrangements, and the type and kind of delivery system to be used. These factors in turn focus directly on en route objectives and terminal outcomes. Emphasis is on the proficiency level needed for successful performance on subsequent learning tasks or courses.

The key concept is self-directed study which is individually paced. Information and skills are programmed in small, sequential steps, with mastery attained at specified levels of performance.

## Mastery Learning

The concept of mastery refers to the belief that students can attain a high level of achievement if certain conditions are met. Mastery implies that a student has developed an expected or prescribed level of proficiency in a given task. When a student is required by the very nature of the course to develop a prescribed proficiency or level of competency before leaving a task, it is said that a "fixed-proficiency" or "mastery" mode is used. In the best of open university systems the recommended model is one of fixed content, variable time, and fixed proficiency. According to Benjamin Bloom and Jerome Bruner, one can expect even a below-average student, if highly motivated, to master the content when given enough time to do so.

Students are much more likely to be successful in the mastery model than in a traditional model, since intended learnings are divided into a series of very specific performance objectives that build upon one another. Before proceeding to a new objective or level, students are required to demonstrate an acceptable level of performance on the one preceding.

## Differentiated Curriculum

Higher education has been slow to adopt the concept of organizing and programming knowledge and skills in terms of structure and sequence of a given subject. Educators now know a great deal, however, about how to break a subject down into its sequential strands and the information and skills associated with each strand. We know how to program for principles, concepts, and generalizations as well as for facts and skills.

We also know how to incorporate prerequisite sequences into curriculum planning. More than merely transmitting basic informtion, we know how to program complex problem-solving situations and learning events that require high-cognitive thinking skills. Because of the different technological systems used in open and distance education, it is important that we put knowledge into different types of curriculum packages that are compatible with the technological delivery system being used. The differentiated curriculum is the best example of a curriculum development concept that utilizes all of these propositions.

A differentiated curriculum provides students with opportunities to reach their objectives through alternate curricular routes and diversified course options. Within the courses students learn from materials written at their own reading levels, whether above, at, or below their assigned class or course level. Multi-level materials, textbooks, supplementary resources, and related technology and software are necessary for a differentiated curriculum.

## Criterion-Referenced Evaluation

Since criterion-referenced evaluation is geared to determining self-growth toward a fixed standard based on the individual's starting point, or entry performance, it is highly compatible with open and distance education. Criterion-referenced evaluation is fundamental for mastery-oriented programs. In such programs, students are given ample opportunity to prove their competencies. Students in open and distance education systems must have opportunities ultimately to be successful by proving mastery through shooting for a fixed standard as many times as necessary. No permanent grade should be recorded until mastery has been reached. The traditional norm-referenced approach to evaluation is both restrictive and discriminatory, in that it attempts to weed students out rather than to include them in. Criterion-referenced evaluation requires the use of formative evaluation, which provides information on performance along the way toward complete mastery. Summative evaluation, on the other hand, is associated with the final grade. The information derived from formative evaluation is used for self-improvement. Formative evaluation is used as a teaching aid and as an individual standard by which each student can measure his/her progress through small sequential units.

It is clear that open and distance education can be greatly improved through the use of individualized instruction, mastery learning, differentiate curriculum, and criterion-referenced evaluation.

# 13.7.2 Distance Traning for The Four Hundred Thousand Elementary School Teachers in One Year : The Agenda for Reseach and Development in Education Personnel Development of Thailand

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A better education would prepare people acddemically to improve their social and economic lives. As an emerging country, Thailand has increasingly concerner itself with the educational development of the Thai people. However, the basic problem which hampers the expansion and improvement of the quality of education at all levels is the shortage of qualified teachers. Therefore, preparation will be made to train the required mumber of qualified teacher, to devellored efficiency of instructional systems so that the extensive improvement of teach is on of the very important goals of the developing educational system in Thai society.

In 1987, Thailand had about 32,000 elementary schools and 400,000 elementary school teachers. However, the teachers had about 70% graduated at college level about more than 5 years. So that Ministry of Education had the project of instructional systems efficienly development of 400,000 elementary schools in the one year program. The ONPEC (the office of the national primary education commission, ministry of education, thailand) stated that a special type of training for 400,000 elementary school teachers in the one year program is different from what is generally provided in the quality as same as individualize training. The educational technologist in thailand created the training systems as distance training systems because of the system is one of the special type for training of the 400,000 teachers. The distance training systems nature is not led by the trainer present in the class-room but its uspported in unlimited number of trainees by media and tutors at a distance from a trainees.

## DISTANCE TRAINING TECHNOLOGY

Distance training is a fairly term. It denotes the form of training not led by a trainer present in the class - rooms but supported by tutors and an organization at a distance from the trainees. Distance training is felt to be associated exclusively with the written word, where as usually printed materials audio recordings and often radio, television, telephone communication, teletex, videotex, telemultimedia and other media nowadays supplement the written word in what is here called distance training. The characteristics of distance training are three types of activities as follows : (1) the development of self training material as courses printed and or recorded which may either be self-contained or of a training - guide type relying on multimedia package. (2) Training at a distance by comments in writting, on the telephone or an audio cassettes or by computer networks on trainees' work submitted (3) counselling and general support of trainees' work by the same distance - training media.

Distance training mainly belongs to adult education for "Lifelong Education" but special forms of supervised distance training have been developed for primary and secondary education in sparsely in habited areas. Distance training is usually a cost - effective type of training which compare favourably with conventional training.

MEDIA FOR DISTANCE TRAINING

The basic of the development of every distance training course is the question : "What medium or media shall we choose to replace the interpersonal communication, usually supported by printed documentation, that is the characteristic way that a course content

4. Validity - The instructional media must be appropriate for achieving the objectives of the learning materials. Care must be taken to choose media which are suitable for the content or subject matter one wishes to convey.

5. Economics - The instructional media must not be overly expensive. This will involve considerations of economics of scale and cost effectiveness.

A simple presentation of choice of media available for carrying the content of distance training course might be respresented schematically; thus Dr.Wichit Srisa - an, Rector of STOU (1985) states the following :

1. Availability - It is essential that the chosen instructional media and delivery systems be technologically practicable; that is, the technology to be used in the individual societies must have been adequately developed, and there must be sufficient manpower to make continued use of the technology.

2. Accessibility - The instructional media and the delivery systems to be used must be accessible to both the distance teaching institution and the learners. For example, if television is chosen as an instructional medium, not only must there be appropriate and adequate air time; but also the students must have TV sets capable of picking up the programs.

3. Acceptability - The instructional media must be accepted

both by the teachers and the students. This concerns the aptitudes and attitudes of both groups with respect to certain types of media. If the teachers or students are not skilled in the use of a particular medium, it is not likely to be very effective.

## RESEARCH PROCEDURE

1. Identify the instructional efficiancy development curricula for the elementary school teachers.

2. Design and production media for the distance training system.

3. Try out the distance training system for development

4. Monitoring the system

5. Evaluation the system

## FINDING

1. curriculum of the system were as follows: (a) instructional preparation (b) instructional activities managment (c) media design production and utilization (d) instructional evaluation

2. the system have printed materials (graphic programmed instruction text book) is the main media which are tape recorder, video tape and tutors as the supporting maaia.

3. about 95% of trainees received the successive experiences.

M.E.Hale
Austinmer, N.S.W.

## 13.8 PROGRESS IN TEACHER EDUCATION

One looks in vain for signposting of research into, or discussion of, a segment of the learning process which might be designated DEER, standing for:

| | |
|---|---|
| detection of errors | DE |
| erasing of errors | E |
| relearning | R |

and yet every learner, no matter where placed onthe continuum stretching from beginner to scholar, encounters this segment.

No matter whom I have sked, or where I have searched, I have been unable to pinpoint any teacher education course dedicated to finding, eliminating and replacing eroneous learning, of whatever simplicityor complexity. Attitudes are particularly "elusive" though claims have been made.

Inquiry teaching appears to be particularly vulnerable.

This roundtable might do teacher education a great service if it locates sources of researach and/or reports on efforts being made in Australia or elsewhere, to grapple with DEER.

## 13.9 A SPECIALIZED PRACTICUM THE COOK ISLANDS EXPERIENCE

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The practicum curriculum, as outlined by Turney et al (1985), consists of three domains classroom, school and community The concept of a specialized practicum as operationalized in Secondary Teacher Education Programmes at Sydney University allows for students who have satisfactorily completed their major practicum requirements to become involved in experiences which enable them to broaden their work beyond the classroom into aspects of both the school and community domains

Preparation for a specialized practicum occurs during normal term lecture time and involves students in course units which provide a theoretical and practical orientation to the practicum In the instance of the Cook Islands Practicum all participating students were required to complete a course entitled "Paradise or Problem? Education in the South Pacific" which explored the economic and social settings of South Pacific countries and their school systems and focused on selected curriculum issues, education and economic development in small Pacific States In addition to this course students met with staff members over a considerable period to plan the visit, gather teaching resources, study syllabuses, and gain some understanding of specific teaching situations in the Cook Islands. In addition these sessions were used to develop a group identity which provided mutual support, assistance and co-operation in day-to-day teaching and living in the Cook Islands.

At the completion of all coursework requirements a group of 21 students left Sydney to spend four weeks working in Cook Island schools. These students were drawn from the four teacher education programmes, Early Childhood, Primary, Secondary and Human Movement Education.

Upon arrival at Rarotonga students spent two and a half days in a special programme organized by the Cook Islands Ministry of Education to study the culture, politics, language, educational development and curriculum. During these sessions students met many of their co-operating teachers as well as Curriculum Officers and together with the fact that students were billeted with families associated with the schools in which they were to teach they were able to gain a good understanding of the school, its community and their teaching role within it.

Most students taught in schools on the main island of Rarotonga but after the first week three students left to teach on the outer islands of Mangaia, Mauke and Aitutake A support base for students was established at the house provided for the two staff members accompanying the group. Meetings were arranged every second day for students to get together to discuss their teaching plans, share resources and organize special activities. Staff members visited schools on a regular basis and also spent some time with each student on the outer islands

University staff, students, school personnel and educational authorities all agreed on the success of the practicum experiences The students in most instances improved upon their teaching grades awarded in previous practicums and gained valuable experience in all three practicum domains

In the classroom domain, apart from emphasizing the need for innovative planning and managing a learning environment with scarce resources, students developed skills in determining their personal effectiveness as teachers. They were able to spend time reflecting upon their concept of a teacher's role. They learned that a teacher is the most valuable resource that pupils can have in the classroom and they were able to explore many ways of using a teacher's skills so as to meet the need of their pupils.

It was in the school and community domains that the students developed their skills to a greater extent than that which is the case in normal practicums. They became very adept at identifying, locating and using objects available in the local communitywhich are not usually considered as teaching resources. Their abilty to assess the application of resources improved considerably and they showed in securing, organizing and co-ordinating the use of resources. They collaborated closely with other students and with their co-operating teachers in a variety of tasks including curriculum development and programming planning. They became involved in the communities in which they lived by promoting an exchange of information and were able to become familiar with the needs and capabilities of the children in their classes in a short amount of time.

An area of great involvement was the students' participation in school-based community activities as well as community organized activities. It appears that a practicum such as that organized in the Cook Islands can provide similar opportunities to a particum closer to home while at the same time providing opportunities for students to gain skills and experience in a wider range of activities than would normally be expected.

15.1

# STUDENT AND SUPERVISOR PERCEPTIONS OF PEER SUPERVISION OF PRACTICE TEACHING

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## PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

To investigate the effectiveness of an alternative model to the conventional model of practice teaching supervision in preservice teacher education programs. The alternative model is the Peer Supervision Model.

## RATIONALE

Practice teaching is a significant component in the professional development of student teachers. It has been defined as "a purposeful series of supervised professional experiences" (Turney et al., 1982a, p.1). The quality of these experiences depends greatly on the quality of supervision.

The conventional supervisory model, at James Cook University and elsewhere in Australia, assigns one student teacher to one supervising teacher. The supervising teacher, supported to some extent by a university or college lecturer or tutor, then provides supervision on a one-to-one basis.

There are a number of reasons, both pragmatic and theoretical, why it makes good sense to implement and evaluate a number of alternate models of practice teaching supervision:

1. The large number of students enrolled in the new DipT/BEd program (approximately 900) makes the provision of quality supervision an enormous challenge. The former (and current) model of supervision, based on a limited number of schools and centres with close liaison by University staff, is stretched to breaking point. It is therefore necessary to develop and evaluate alternative models.

2. A corollary to point "1", is that the school contexts in which practice teaching takes place vary widely. Given this fact, and the reality of individual differences among student teachers, it would be remarkable if one model of supervision suited all students in all contexts. There is a need to develop and evaluate alternative models of supervision.

3. Payment for practice teaching supervision is a very considerable cost to the University. The University has a responsibility to obtain high quality supervision for this expenditure. If a peer supervision model in which a supervising teacher supervised more than one student teacher were adopted, the number of supervising teachers required would be reduced. This would enable the University, in consultation with school administration, to be more selective in recruiting supervising teachers, with a consequent improvement in the quality of supervision.

4. There has been a paucity of research into alternative models of supervision in Australian preservice teacher education.

## REVIEW OF LITERATURE

In the past decade there has been a growing interest in how teachers develop professionally, and how to provide the necessary environment which will foster this development. Paralleling this focus on the nature and facilitation of teacher's professional development has been the growing interest in instructional supervision, and more particularly in the use of clinical supervision as a form of instructional supervision. More recently, variations on the theme of clinical supervision have emerged. "Coaching" and "developmental supervision" are notable variants. Joyce and Showers (1980) have conducted considerable research into the value of on-site coaching in helping teachers improve their instructional competence, especially in learning new techniques.

Associated with this movement towards a more self-directed, collegial form of supervision there has been a growing interest in peer supervision. Traditionally, teaching has been a lonely activity, conducted behind closed doors, as it were. It has been said that "education is among the last vocations within which it is still legitimate to work by yourself in a space that is secure against invaders" (Snyder, 1981, p.524). The "invaders" have usually been superiors (e.g., principals or other administrative staff, advisors and subject specialists, inspectors) and have entered the teacher's classroom by what they perceive as their right, or duty, seldom by invitation. Their role usually cast them into the "outside expert" category. The idea that a peer, a colleague, is more likely to establish an open, non-threatening relationship with a teacher, has led to some use of peer supervision as a form of instructional supervision (Grimmet, 1987).

There is limited research into the incidence and effectiveness of peer supervision at both inservice and preservice level. However there are some claims being reported in favour of peer supervision (Schiller, 1987; Cooper, 1982; Retallick, 1986). Just as the face of supervision has changed over the past twenty years, there has been a rethinking of the nature and purpose of practice teaching, and how it is best supervised. There has been, over the past decade, an increasing advocacy of a more clinical supervisory approach to practice teaching supervision (Turney et al., 1982a, 1982b; Price and Sellars, 1985; Tisher, 1987). There has been a growing disenchantment with the "apprenticeship" or "sitting with Nellie" model of practice teaching in favour of a more analytical, reflective, inquiring approach to practice teaching (Holborn and Olliver, 1987; Tinning, 1984; Zeichner, 1986).

There would seem to be both logical and limited empirical support for researching a peer supervision model of practice teaching. One reason is that, if teachers are to work together as colleagues at the inservice level, they ought to be encouraged to do so at the preservice level. Another persuasive reason for exploring the potential for peer supervision in practice teaching is that, because supervision is such a time-consuming process, student teacher peers may be better placed to find this necessary time than are their very busy supervising teachers. Another potential strength of peer practice teaching supervision is that an open, collegial relationship between student teacher peers may be easier to forge than it is between a supervising teacher and a student teacher, who tend to be cast in a superior-subordinate or teacher-learner role relationship. There is, furthermore, little reason to believe that the traditional practice of assigning only one student teacher to one supervising teacher is superior to other supervisory combinations.[1] Since there is little empirical evidence in favour of any given model of practice teaching supervision, there is a need to research a variety of alternative models.

## THE RESEARCH APPROACH

### Data Collection

We decided that the most appropriate research model to investigate peer supervision during practice teaching was ethnography. Time and money constraints precluded the use of videotapes (Scheflen, 1973; McDermott, Gospodinoff and Aron, 1978; Schultz and Erickson, 1981; Erickson and Mohatt, 1982). Accordingly, we relied heavily on ethnographic interviews (Spradley, 1979) modified by the decision to interview more than one informant, which necessitated "cross site" comparisons (Miles and Huberman, 1984).

We chose to work with two primary teachers and their four second-year student teachers; with two secondary teachers and their two second-year student teachers; with the visiting lecturers and with the coordinator of secondary practice teaching. The two primary teachers were in the same non-government school. The two secondary teachers were both at another non-government school. The coordinator of primary practice teaching was a member of the research team and was not interviewed.

In the primary setting each informant was interviewed three times, once during the first practice and twice during the second practice (once in the middle and once at the end of practice). Access to the secondary practice was not achieved in time to monitor the first three-week block; however each student, each supervisor, the visiting lecturer, and the coordinator was interviewed twice. Besides the ethnographic interviews there were also informal records kept of comments made by informants and events observed by researchers during their visits to the schools.

### Data Analysis

The process of data analysis was a lengthy one. All researchers analysed their own data in the first instance. These analyses were then pooled during a group meeting, to identify questions which had not been "discovered" (Spradley, 1979), to search for commonalities, to tabulate confirming and disconforming evidence of the constructs we were identifying (Erickson, 1986), and to frame cultural contrast questions (Spradley, 1979) in order to fill apparent omissions from particular informants. Such meetings were held twice, once after the first set of interviews and once after all interviewing had been completed. Finally, a research assistant with ethnographic training and experience reworked all the data.

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[1] The policy of assigning only one student teacher to a supervising teacher is the current policy of the Queensland Teachers' Union, and therefore precludes their members from supervising more than one student teacher on a given practice teaching round. The present implication of this policy is that in Queensland government ("state") schools, the peer supervision model may not be implemented without facing the industrial repercussions which would inevitably follow.

## THE CONTEXT

The project sought the cooperation of two non-government schools, one primary and one secondary. In each case the principal researcher met with school personnel to outline the project. A separate meeting was also held with the student teachers assigned to the primary school. The students assigned to the secondary school were present at the meeting with school personnel. Following these meetings both schools signified their willingness to be involved, as did the supervising teachers and student teachers. The students had by then been assigned to the schools in the normal manner. The intention was to carry out this project in as naturalistic a setting as possible.

### (a) The Primary School Setting: Practice Teaching Expectations

Four student teachers (three females, one male) were assigned in pairs to two (female) supervising teachers, one at grade three level and one at grade four level. The students were in the second year of the three-year Diploma of Teaching program. After completing their third semester, three-week practice, the students changed to the other supervisor and grade level for their three-week fourth-semester practice. These practices were placed in April-May and August-September respectively. Both supervising teachers were experienced in supervising student teachers.

In their first-year practice teaching the students had all been regarded as satisfactory in teaching competence. However the first year practice teaching introduces students gradually to the teaching role, with limited teaching responsibility. In third semester the amount of teaching required increases considerably, and in fourth semester student teachers are required to teach, in cooperation with their supervising teacher, a week's "continuous" teaching in the final week. This is regarded widely, by student teachers, school and University personnel, as an important phase of the student teacher's professional development. The students are required to teach, and manage, the class for this extended period of a week, in cooperation with the supervising teacher.

### (b) The Secondary School Setting: Practice Teaching Expectations

The two (male) student teachers had previously been assigned separately to two (female) supervising teachers for their major teaching subject, mathematics. They had already completed three weeks' practice teaching in first semester with their supervising teacher (one week in February, two weeks in May). The common link in the peer supervision process was that they would, in the following practice teaching block, each be teaching grade nine mathematics. This would therefore enable them, and their supervising teachers, to cooperate closely in the supervisory process during the three-week practice in August-September.

The students were in the third year of their four-year Bachelor of Education program. Both had obtained satisfactory practice teaching reports on their practice teaching earlier in the year. One teacher was an experienced supervising teacher, and the other had only recently begun to supervise student teachers.

## SUMMARY

The following is a summary of perceived advantages and disadvantages from all informants (supervising teachers, student teachers, visiting lecturers). Wherever possible, the terms used by the informants are used. The perceived advantages and disadvantages may be real (i.e., the person found them to be advantages or disadvantages) or potential (i.e., the person believed that they could be advantages or disadvantages).

**PLEASE NOTE:** The Discussion of Perceived Advantages and Disadvantages; Implications; and References are omitted from this summary paper. They will be available when the paper is presented at the conference.

| ADVANTAGES | DISADVANTAGES |
|---|---|
| **PRIMARY:** | |
| **Communication**<br>"moral" support between peers<br>criticism "more positive" from a peer<br>"talk about" each other's teaching, about children<br>"sharing"<br>peers relate openly, bridging "gap" between student* and supervisor** | **Organization**<br>"missed out" on whole class lessons<br>limited range of subjects taught<br>little opportunity for "sole management" of class<br>limited teacher resources to share with two students |
| **Observation of Teaching**<br>"notice more things" | **Interpersonal Relationships**<br>Potential for:<br>personality clashes between students<br>problems of "triangular relationships"<br>students' differing personalities (e.g., one may be dominant) |
| **Evaluation of Teaching Effectiveness**<br>learn about cooperative teaching<br>more help for individual children<br>more able to "teach to their strengths" | **Competitiveness**<br>problem of comparing one student with another, especially if students have different abilities<br>"too competitive" |
| | **Time**<br>little time for observation, discussion, planning and evaluation<br>two students can place too many demands ("too much") on a supervisor's time |
| | **Roles of Participants**<br>lack of clarity about roles<br>peer supervision "not as simple as expected" |
| | **Feedback**<br>people can be "too busy" to provide feedback |
| | **Other Points**<br>class has three teachers to get used to, infant classes get "confused" |
| **SECONDARY:** | |
| **Learning About Teaching**<br>encourages students to "discuss their experience", jointly analyze<br>fosters "autonomy", helps students to "shape their own learning"<br>leads to more "examination of lesson plans" and "evaluation of teaching effectiveness"<br>provides learning about teaching by observing peers teaching, and the supervisor teaching<br>enables students to observe and learn about different teaching strategies, and "modify their teaching style" | **Learning About Teaching**<br>a student may be less inclined to "try" another teaching strategy if s/he has observed one "which worked well" |
| **Feedback and Evaluation**<br>"takes the pressure off" the supervisor; the trio share the evaluation<br>"larger range of opinions" available<br>peers are "harsher", more "honest" critics than the supervisor<br>if they teach the same lesson (to different classes) peers can "compare the outcomes" | **Feedback and Evaluation**<br>too much criticism from a peer could "destroy" a student's confidence<br>student teachers may not be as "honest" with each other as their supervisor is<br>a likelihood of "pooled ignorance" with peers |
| **Communication**<br>the students liked working in peers, communicated freely<br>peer supervision "spans the gulf" between student and supervisor | **Communication/Interpersonal Relationships**<br>Potential problems include:<br>a possibility of the parties "assuming too much" because of a lack of communication<br>students with "different abilities, enthusiasm or commitment"<br>one student may be "dominant"<br>two people might "pair off" against the third<br>would peer supervision work of one student was "at risk" and in danger of failing? |
| **Cooperation**<br>students "pooled their resources" in preparing lessons | **Organizational**<br>lack of time to meet, discuss<br>difficulty in scheduling time for all four (two supervisors, two students) to meet |
| **Professional Development**<br>long term advantages in fostering "professional autonomy" and "self-development" | **Other Points**<br>an inexperienced supervisor may feel "threatened" by having two students<br>children may have difficulty "coping" with the different teaching strategies, and with the number of adults in the room<br>a "detailed list of expectations" for students is needed |
| **Other Points**<br>more teachers to "help the slower children"<br>more group work | |

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* "student" means "student teacher"
** "supervisor" means "supervising teacher"

# 15. 2 STUDENT TEACHER PLANNING IN A LABORATORY SETTING

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## Introduction

Teacher planning research has presented valuable descriptions of how experienced teachers proceed in their task to develop courses of instruction for school children (Clark and Peterson, 1984). There is evidence that experienced teachers disregard the rational or objectives planning model when planning to teach, even though they were most likely to have been required to use this model as student teachers (Clark and Yinger, 1979; Marland and Caldwell, 1981) and proceed instead, from a knowledge of the situation and pupils, and typically use knowledge of content, instructional process, pupil activities, or instructional resources, as focal points for planning (Morine-Dershimer, 1978-1979; Mintz, 1979).

The rational planning model presented in the teacher education literature, in both curriculum development textbooks and teacher skill development materials, most commonly identifies four major tasks in planning: specifying objectives, identifying learning activities or content to be covered, arranging learning experiences or instructional strategies, and deciding the assessment procedures (Turney, et al, 1985; Brady, 1987). Despite the recognition within this literature that there are alternative approaches to planning, and that experienced teachers vary their planning procedures considerably from those followed in pre-service preparation, the rational planning model is still identified as one of the most thorough preparations for teaching available to student teachers and those beginning a teaching career (Turney, et al, 1985). Student teachers can be expected to become involved in a variety of situations requiring the preparation of plans as part of a teaching or curriculum development task, especially when writing subject-specific curriculum projects, when preparing for micro-teaching episodes, and when engaged in practice teaching periods.

There are very few studies available that have looked closely at the planning behaviours of student teachers in laboratory or practice teaching sessions, and of the studies available the best conclusions that can presently be drawn are that some student teachers prefer the prescriptions of the rational model to help them cope with the pressures of teaching (MacLeod, n.d.), whilst others prefer not to use the rational model, preferring less prescriptive planning procedures to assist them in teaching (Neale, et al, 1983, Thompson, et al, 1986). Despite these contrary findings concerning student teacher preferred planning behaviour, supervising teachers have been reported as very supportive of the rational planning model for their student teachers, reporting that the model was of value in organising teaching tasks and assisted student teachers to be better prepared to manage the complexities of the classroom (Neale, Pace and Case, 1983, MacLeod, n.d.).

The present study is part of a larger investigation of student teacher planning during a long term practice teaching period. The intention of this paper is to describe the pre-active planning behaviours of final year student teachers immediately prior to their beginning a ten week teaching practice, and again immediately after the practice period. An in-basket planning simulation, or process tracing task, was prepared to obtain base-line data on the kind of information student teachers regard as important in planning a series of lessons, the procedures they followed in completing the task, and then their responses to the same task re-administered at the conclusion of the ten week practice period. Mintz (1979) has indicated a need for studies that extend teacher planning beyond individual and isolated lessons, which include sequences over time, and which are intended to reveal more detailed descriptive knowledge about teacher planning styles and procedures.

## Method

The study is a descriptive one, and is intent upon examining student teacher planning within a defined case study approach (Goetz and LeCompte, 1984). Six student teachers in the final year of a secondary music education program were the subjects of the case study. The four year program is structured to integrate both music studies and teacher education studies so that students were concurrently developing their knowledge and skills in each area. The six key informants, five female and one male, reflected the proportion of female to male student teachers in each cohort of the program for the previous five years. Each student teacher had successfully completed all course and practice teaching requirements of the program in each of the previous three years, and all had been introduced to the rational planning model as the preferred planning model for course assignments and practice teaching planning requirements.

The in-basket planning simulation, or process tracing task is a technique used in the systematic study of human thought processes, especially human problem solving (Shulman and Elstein, 1975, Payne, 1980), with the resultant verbal protocols constituting evidence of the subjects cognitive processing of information (Clark, 1983). The most common method of obtaining verbal protocols requires subjects to verbalise their thoughts on audiotape whilst performing a particular task. The "think aloud" data are subsequently transformed into typed form in preparation for analysis.

To prepare a task environment that was representative of pre-active planning, and which would be representative of the planning demands student teachers would have to deal with during practice teaching, the researcher visited a metropolitan high school to investigate the planning requirements for music in the junior school (Years 7-10) and the school context for planning. In preparing the in-basket simulation material the researcher was guided by listed categories of information that could reasonably be expected to comprise the data bank for the school (Morine-Dershimer, 1976; Mintz, 1979), and which included comprehensive assessment records of pupils. Items identified for the data bank included an introduction to the school, aims and objectives for music in the junior school, details of Year 7 and 8 music programs, facilities and equipment for music, and fictitious pupil records based on real pupils from a junior non-elective music class. Twelve student profiles were prepared, and each documented personal details, academic achievement, non-cognitive characteristics such as self-confidence and reliability, and report from the primary feeder school. The twelve students also represented above average, average and below average achievers in music.

Prior to the planning task student teachers were given a thirty minute session to practice "thinking aloud" in pairs, with each student taking turns to verbalise a plan for a Year 7 or 8 introductory music lesson on the instruments of the orchestra. The actual simulation task was scheduled to take about one hour, with each student working in a separate room with cassette recorder, blank tape, and printed documents containing school and pupil profiles, and the planning task requirements. Each student knew broadly what was required the day before the simulation and was permitted to bring resources to the planning room. Lists of resources were made available to the researcher.

## Results

What emerged from the analysis of the verbal protocols was that none of the student teachers had difficulty in thinking aloud whilst completing the task, each student reviewed the available data and focussed upon content areas to be covered, and pupil profiles were only used to identify potential discipline problems, or in two cases to refer to pupils whose musical ability could contribute to particular lesson activities. None of the student teachers were prepared to act to change the existing context for planning prior to the practice teaching experience, whereas after the practice three included the purchase or borrowing of musical instruments as essential to planning. The pre-active planning statements of the student teachers in this case study did not follow the prescriptive planning model that they were most familiar with from course work. Instead, planning statements identified content, student activities, and instructional strategies. Statements of aims were used to help organise content statements, after content had been decided, and only then as a check that the planning was in line with the broad aims set out in the simulation documentation.

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NEPEAN COLLEGE OF ADVANCED EDUCATION

## 15.3 THE MYTHS AND REALITIES OF STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMS

MON KHAMIS

### INTRODUCTION

Howey, Yarger and Joyce (1978) have suggested by virtue of certification, teachers are expected to be competent in:

> communication; organisation; identification of specific learning problems and helping children overcome them; assessing learning; evaluating programs; building into programs strategies for inculcating basic values such as honesty, respect, patriotism; integrating culturally pluralistic material in the curriculum; performing all of the above with a sensitivity to the rights of 25 to 30 children (Howey, et al, 1978, p. X).

They stressed that it is impossible for any contemporary teacher education program to equip teachers with all of these nessary skills.

The need to develop competent teacher education graduates has led educators to highlight the insufficient time available for students to obtain their minimum qualifications. The 1986 report of the joint review of the commonwealth tertiary education commission and schools commission on improving teacher education contributed to the debate by suggesting:

> "Evidence obtained during the course of the Review indicates that there is support for the introduction of four-year pre-service courses for primary and early childhood teachers. Those in favour of this development have argued that lengthening the period of training for these teachers would remove the undesirable distinction between their training and that of secondary teachers." 5.17 p. 44.

On the other hand, there were significant educational and financial arguments against the lengthening of courses. Furthermore, the report stated:

> "There is no significant research evidence to suggest that primary and early childhood teachers with four years training prior to employment would be better suited to cope with the demands of the classroom in their early years of teaching than are those with three years training." 5.19 p. 44.

In addition, Williamson (1977) reported that students were disillusioned with the value of teacher education courses due in part to exessive emphasis upon "thoretical rhetoric" and the absence of actual experience with pupils in schools. Students perceive this experience to be the most important factor in their preparation. Tisher (1987) suported this view reporting that the practicum has an acknowledged central place in teacher education programs and "trainees consider it the most important, satisfying, relevant, practical, worthwhile feature of their preservice education .... and, they want its quantity and quality increased". p. 81.

## THE PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The lack of hard data stressing the intended outcomes which may result from increasing the length of teacher education programs prompted the present study designed to determine Home Economics student teachers' perceptions of their abilities to perform certain competencies as a result of their personal attributes, their college program and their practice teaching experience.

## METHODOLOGY

Ninety two third year and 73 fourth year Home Economics student teachers from three New South Wales Colleges were surveyed. The majority of these students were between the ages of 19 to 24. One hundred and seven students indicated they had 16-20 weeks practice teaching experience while the remainder had more than 20 weeks of practice.

The subjects were asked to indicate on a five point Likert scale the extent to which they could perform 35 teaching competencies as a result of their personal attributes, College program and practice teaching. The items were divided into five categories:

1. personal attributes - seven items;
2. knowledge about educational issues - four items;
3. catering for individual differences - seven items;
4. classroom teaching performance - ten items;
5. organising ability - seven items.

## RESULTS

Means for each competency statements for the third and fourth year students were compared. The mean totals for the seven personal attributes competencies for the fourth year students were higner indicating they perceived they had more confidence in their ability, gained more from the college program, and from Practice Teaching.

There were little differences between the two groups on mean responses for knowledge about current educational issues. This may reflect students' professional orientation towards classroom performance tasks rather than the personal and social development of pupils.

An examination of the means totals for the seven items related to catering for individual differences demonstrates the importance of Practice Teaching for providing students with opportunities to improve their perception of their abilities to perform these competencies. However, students' reponses indicated they were less confident in providing essential remedial work and catering for migrant children.

Comparisons of mean totals for classroom teaching competencies highlighted the benefits of the additional year of pre-service. Fourth year students demonstrated higher mean totals for personal attributes, college program and practice teaching. Despite these higher perceptions, the college program should provide opportunities for students to develop competencies related to chalkboard presentation, use of eye contact, and flexibility during the lesson.

Response means for organising abilities showed little differences between third and fourth year students perceptions as a result of the college program. Mean totals for personal attributes and practice teaching were higher for both years. The benefits of additional practice is reflected in the fourth years reporting higher perceptions of their organising abilities. These responses suggest the need for more emphasis to be given within the college program to assist student teachers in developing a system for marking classwork, maintaining pupil records and using preparation time effectively.

## DISCUSSION

Comparisons among third and fourth year Home Economics student teachers revealed that fourth year students generally reported higher perceptions of their abilities associated with 35 teaching competencies related to personal attributes, knowledge about educational issues, catering for individual differences, classroom teaching performance and organising ability. The results reinforce the perceived importance of the practicum and point to some of the inadequacies of the college program. Students generally reported the college program had lower influence on their professional development than the practicum and their personal characteristics and attributes.

Care must be exercised due to the many uncontrolled variables which influence the professional development of student teachers. The findings suggest the fourth year students have higher perceptions on many of the listed competencies. However, the difference is small enough to warrant an examination of clear outcomes expected from the additional year of training. Moreover, extensive evaluations of the various factors influencing the professional socialisation of teachers should be undertaken in order to identify and assess the intended outcomes of one additional year of pre-service education.

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## 15.4 The Opinions of Student Teachers About the Grading of Teaching Practice

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### Introduction

Teaching practice is widely recognised as an essential component of teacher education courses. However, the way in which the practicum should be assessed is not universally accepted. A perusal of the documentation provided to student teachers, co-operating teachers, and tertiary Staff reveals a wide variety of approaches to the evaluation of teaching practice.

Whilst most institutions involved in teacher education consider that descriptive comments, checklists and rating scales (in various combinations) are all useful, there is a great deal of variation in the way these evaluation techniques are used. This variation is particularly evident in the current situation where some institutions use graded rating scales and others appear to favour descriptive comments.

This current study was initiated in a teacher education institution where the grading of teaching practice was undergoing revision and a convenient "research window" opened on those student teachers involved in the change. That is, the study sought to investigate the ideas student teachers held about the assessment of teaching practice (in general) and to identify (in some detail) what they saw as the advantages and disadvantages involved in a two-point grading system, a four-point grading system, and a descriptive assessment system. All the student teachers had experienced elements of all three systems.

### The Context of this Study

The student teachers involved in this study were second and third year students enrolled in a three-year Diploma of Teaching course at a College of Advanced Education in rural Victoria. After the first year of the course, changes were made to the grading of teaching practice. A four-point scale ("Outstanding - Very Good - Satisfactory - Unsatisfactory"), which had been used for many years, was replaced by a two-point scale ("Satisfactory - Unsatisfactory"); that is, an "ungraded pass/fail" system of assessment.

These student teachers were enrolled in a fairly typical teacher education program, "traditional craft" in orientation, which included blocks of teaching practice distributed throughout the three years of the course. Student teachers had completed 60 days (second year students) and 100 days (third year students) of teaching practice when they were interviewed by the researcher.

One external factor which influenced the responses of student teachers to the changes in assessment which occurred was the employment procedures used by the Victorian Ministry of Education (the major employer) to select beginning teachers. As part of their application for employment, student teachers are required to request a "professional readiness report" from the institution at which they completed their teacher education program. These reports, which comment on the applicant's classroom skills and general suitability for teaching, are forwarded, when the course is completed, to the recruitment section of the Ministry of Education.

## Procedure

A small group of second year (N=7) and third year (N=8) student teachers were interviewed and their ideas concerning the assessment practices they had experienced were explored. These student teachers were self-selected; that is, they had responded to an invitation to share their ideas with the researcher.

The change in the system of grading had occurred early in the year so that by the time the interviews were held (at the end of the year) all student teachers had completed two four-week blocks of teaching practice which had been assessed on the "new" two-point basis ("Satisfactory - Unsatisfactory").

After the interviews were conducted and the transcripts examined, it was decided to question (by using a short written response questionnaire) second and third year student teachers on whether they were in "favour", "against", or "undecided" about the removal of the four-point rating scale from their practice teaching report forms. These data enabled possible differences in responses between the second and third year student teachers to be recognised.

## Findings

The findings are presented in three sections:

1. Reasons for the retention of the four-point rating scale;
2. Reasons for the removal of the four-point rating scale;
3. An outline of the group data collected.

### *1. Reasons for the retention of the four-point rating scale*

Three major reasons were advanced by student teachers in support of the retention of rating scales.

(i) Employment opportunities

The employment procedures adopted by the Ministry of Education were known to student teachers. Student teachers were also aware that the gradings on teaching practice reports in the past had been used to determine the ratings which were attached to professional readiness reports forwarded to the Ministry in previous years. Not surprisingly, all student teachers stated that they disagreed with the removal of the rating scale because of the implications this might have on their employment prospects. Student teachers considered that the absence of ratings on professional readiness reports, which were based on ratings made by supervisors during teaching practice, would disadvantage them in relation to employment with the Ministry of Education. Since professional readiness reports were to be graded in any case by the Ministry, student teachers preferred these gradings to be based on those made by supervisors who had observed them in classrooms. Student teachers, who might seek employment outside the Ministry of Education, also thought they might be disadvantaged because there was no clear indication on report forms that they were anything other than 'Satisfactory'.

(ii) Elaboration and quantification of descriptive comments

Ten of the fifteen student teachers interviewed disagreed with the removal of the rating scale from teaching practice reports for reasons other than those related to employment procedures.

Some student teachers considered that ratings complemented the (sometimes limited) descriptive comments made by co-operating teachers, providing additional information about performance which enabled them to interpret the written report. They thought that this was helpful because of the varying capabilities and willingness of supervisors to write descriptive comments, and because the teaching practice report form had limited space in which comments could be made.

(iii) Motivational aspects of the four-point rating scale

Some student teachers considered that the absence of a four-point rating scale failed to adequately reward those who worked hard during teaching practice. The award of a 'Satisfactory' assessment only sometimes failed to provide incentive to work hard while in schools.

### 2. *Reasons for the removal of the four-point rating scale*

Five of the student teachers interviewed, all completing third year, were in favour of rating scales being removed from teaching practice reports if it was assumed that Ministry of Education employment procedures did not apply. Four reasons were identified from an analysis of transcripts.

(i) The rating scale was unnecessary

Some student teachers considered that the rating scale was unnecessary because they knew intuitively about their level of performance. They did not need an assessment by supervisors expressed in the form of a rating scale. Moreover, knowing that they had done well was sufficient reward for the work they had completed while in schools.

(ii) The educational validity of the scale was questionable

One student teacher stated that she considered that the rating of performance was not soundly based in educational terms. Poor ratings could affect the confidence and self-esteem of those who rated poorly, while good ratings were unnecessary for successful students.

(iii) Descriptive comments facilitate discussion

Another student teacher considered that an emphasis on descriptive assessment provided information which could be discussed by participants. Therefore, the sharing of meanings about strengths and weaknesses was a valuable process in which understanding could develop, whereas marks on a rating scale, because they were so obvious, failed to provide a framework in which interaction could occur.

(iv) Rating scales impede the development of skills

Another student teacher stated that the removal of the rating scale enabled him to feel less inhibited about grades. Therefore, he was more willing to try out his own ideas while in the classroom.

### 3. *Group data*

During the interviews the researcher gained the impression that differences existed in the responses given by student teachers on the basis of the year level of the course in which they were enrolled. Therefore, it was decided to survey second and third year student teachers to see if they were in "favour", "undecided" or "against" the changes which had been made in assessment. A chi-square analysis of the null hypothesis that the distribution of responses between second and third year student teachers was random was rejected at the .05 level. This result supported the impression gained in interviews that differences existed between second and third year student teachers in relation to assessment.

**Comments**

The data collected in interviews reveal a diversity of views about the use of rating scales, and descriptive comments, for the assessment of teaching practice. Given these differences amongst student teachers and, possibly, amongst other participants in the practicum, it is surprising that little attention appears to have been given in practicum "handbooks" to the reasons why particular forms of assessment have been adopted. Clearly, the way in which teaching practice is assessed cannot be taken for granted, and a clear rationale needs to be developed to explain why a particular approach has been taken.

The research has also indicated that differences exist in the views held by second and third year student teachers. However, no data which help to explain these differences were collected. At the present time the intention is to again interview the second year student teachers and to explore the reasons they might have for changing, or retaining, their ideas about assessment. Hopefully, the data collected will contribute to a greater understanding of why members of one important group of participants in the practicum hold the views they do about the way in which teaching practice is assessed.

(Additional details of the research completed, including excerpts from transcripts of the interviews held with student teachers, are contained in the expanded version of this paper.)

# 15.5 Focusing on the PERSON in the Study of Curriculum in Teacher Education

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In every Australian state and in many overseas countries there are trends towards increased levels of school-based curriculum decision-making. At the school level, groups of teachers or individual teachers are being encouraged to take more responsibility for decisions relating to school policies and school programs. Within Queensland, the most recent document to stress this trend is *Project 21: Teachers for the Twenty-First Century*, compiled by the Board of Teacher Education. Statements within this document emphasize "the increasing role of the school and its community in curriculum development" as an important trend for the coming years (p.41). There can be little argument that, associated with these trends, there is a need for all teachers to be equipped with skills in curriculum decision-making.

There is an urgent need, therefore, to design effective programs in teacher pre-service and in-service education to prepare the teachers to fulfil this role as curriculum decision-makers and planners at the classroom and school levels. Traditionally most pre-service programs, together with Bachelors and Masters programs have some components which deal with generic curriculum studies. Some courses focus on classroom planning; others deal with the broader topics of curriculum design and curriculum theory; while others take up the concepts of school change and the role of teachers as change agents.

Some insights into the ways in which the study of curriculum is approached in these units may be gleaned from two sources, though the reliability of any generalizations about actual teaching practices based on these sources is somewhat questionable. The nature of general curriculum text-books must surely act as one source of information about how the study of curriculum is perceived by many teacher educators, student teachers and teachers. The other source is the literature which debates issues and approaches related to the study of curriculum within teacher education programs. In many respects, there are contradictions reflected in the state of the art as represented in each of these two avenues.

The standard curriculum text-books tend to portray curriculum in a recipe-style format. They imply that teachers involved in developing curriculum follow a rational process, making sequential decisions based on objective considerations. The relationships among the elements of curriculum are often represented in rigid models and teachers may readily gain the impression that curriculum decision-making is a technical process which can be mastered by simple training in the relevant skills and by then applying these prescribed procedures.

This technical view of curriculum decision-making has been the subject of mounting criticism, though it continues to persist. Case studies lend strength to the argument that such a view over-simplifies the processes involved in curriculum decision-making and fails to account for the value-laden social and political dimensions inherent in the process. Roby (1985) sounds a warning:

> The retrospective neatening of the process into discrete linear stages, when mistaken for the process itself, can circumscribe its dynamics (p.21).

Some degree of realization of these shortcomings in adhering to a technical approach is reflected in the arguments proposed by teacher educators that studies in curriculum should involve critical reflection and inquiry methods. By using these methods, student teachers and teachers are expected to clarify their attitudes to the many issues which impinge on curriculum decisions. These methods are seen to take some account of the complexity and the value-laden nature of curriculum decision-making. However, such methodology is not universally accepted in the teaching of curriculum-related units, nor have text-books supported those teacher educators who wish to implement these procedures.

This paper will proceed by refining the arguments presented above and hypothesizing some strategies for the study of curriculum within teacher education programs. The strategies evolve from a research project which examines the "personal practical knowledge" of teachers involved in school-based curriculum change. By employing the research perspective of personal practical knowledge, the study focuses on the teachers' own perceptions of curriculum decision-making - it attempts to view the process through the teachers' eyes. Connelly and Dienes (1982) define personal practical knowledge as:

> a comprehensive view teachers have of themselves, their situations, and their role within a situation. It is composed of theoretical knowledge elements, elements of understanding of the teacher's practical curriculum situation, and of personal beliefs and values concerning what can and should be done in the teacher's circumstances. (p.183/4)

In particular, the study describes the "images" held by the teachers, which guide and explain these curricular actions. The construct of image has been used in a number of studies to explain teachers' instructional decisions at the classroom level (see, for example, Clandinin, 1986; Elbaz, 1983). The study reported in this paper transposes the construct of image to explore curriculum decision-making at the wider school level. Images are a component of personal practical knowledge and are defined by Clandinin (1986) in the following way.

> Image is a personal, meta-level, organizing concept in personal practical knowledge in that it embodies a

> person's experience; finds expression in practice; and is the perspective from which new experience is taken. (p.166)

For the teachers who participated in the study:

- Images of **teaching** were important determinants of their involvement in curriculum change.

    - change resulted when their image of teaching did not match the reality of the classroom;
    - change resulted when teachers sought to realize their ideals which were portrayed by their images of teaching.

- The teachers' images of their own **school** and their **role within that school** facilitated their willingness to be involved in curriculum change.

    - the images the teachers held of their role in their school guided the strategies they used to gain support for their ideals.

- The teachers held images of the **curriculum product** they were developing which guided the design process.

The study portrays curriculum decision-making as a process in which the personal practical knowledge of the individual teacher plays a vital role. Central to curriculum decisions are the images held by the teacher about teaching, about their school, about their role in the school and about the product they are developing. These images guide actions and explain past events. In turn, these images are modified as a result of feedback from actions taken. They are formed by intense emotional experiences which can be personal or professional in nature. The impetus for change comes from within the teacher. It emanates from inside the person rather than being a response of that person to external factors.

The process of decision-making depicted in the study is not a linear or logical sequence. Rather it seems to be a series of tentative probes, in which action is taken often before formal decisions are articulated. Images are refined and actions strengthened as the teachers assimilate the experiences of making these tentative probes.

The implications of this study for teacher educators are in the realms of process and content. There is little research to guide the teacher educator in the design of the most appropriate settings, tasks and activities that could promote effective self-understanding of and enquiry into personal practical knowledge. However, the description and use of different processes and content has been reported (Smith,1985; Connelly and Clandinin, 1986).

The aim of the last section of this paper is [illegible] descriptions of activities that the teacher educator could implement:

*1.) Private processes to reveal personal practical knowledge.*

This is perhaps the most difficult way to start with the student teachers or teachers because so much of a teacher's personal practical knowledge is tacit, embedded and implicit in practice. However, in a Curriculum Studies Course the space may be created for reflection and the following processes are available. The processes fit into the concept of personal practical knowledge as being part of a narrative. Today's personal practical knowledge of any teacher is a picture taken at a particular point in time; the entity personal practical knowledge comes out of the past and will move inexorably into the future. Therefore to understand their own personal practical knowledge the teacher must search in the past and in the future. To challenge themselves about the reasons for their practice they must, however imperfectly, get an image of their personal practical knowledge in an enquiry oriented, knowledge saturated setting. The proposed processes are:

Autobiography - write it ourselves Journals
Biography - read about another's life
Interviewing others about self
Visualising
Document analysis

*2.) Group processes to reveal personal practical knowledge*

This is is the preferred method because personal practical knowledge is a construct that is more truly displayed and revealed in actions than in words. To have another look at and listen to us is a more powerful method. As Kieran Egan put it:

> "It is so difficult to think about our values because they are what we think with"

The processes that a teacher educator can introduce into the curriculum course with a group of teachers are as follows :

Story Telling
Letter Writing in dialogue with another teacher
Interviews
Participant observation

The actual data generated by these processes must be reflected upon by the teachers who participate in them. If the course content supplies the appropriate knowledge environment there is a wealth of ways to help the teacher to grasp and hold the data. The constructs that are appropriate are:

1) Image
2) Rules or Maxims
3) Practical Principles
4) Personal Philosophy
5) Metaphor

All of these are forms of knowledge and are appropriate formulations of personal practical knowledge.

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15.6.1

## NEW INITIATIVES FOR NURTURING MULTICULTURAL AWARENESS AT A SCHOOL LEVEL

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### Multicultural Parenting

Canada's multicultural policy is designed to promote a nation of many but equal, ethnic groups rather than a 'melting pot'. With increasing numbers of immigrants coming to Canada, particularly of visible minorities, more strain is being exerted on the educational system. Our approach to help immigrant families, without tapping existing resources, is multicultural parenting. This view multicultural education experience employs the peer counselling concept by utilizing those parents from the dominant culture to help immigrant parents. During this presentation, the challenges facing immigrant families in Canada will be discussed, and how multicultural parenting will assist them to adjust to their new country will be described and commented upon.

### Multicultural Friendship

People from many lands have emigrated to this Canada to develop new futures for themselves and their families. Due to a variety of societal forces, there are indications that the social harmony which has existed in the country for decades may not continue. The federal government in an effort to present social unrest, racial prejudice and occupational discrimination is formulating new legislation (A Multicultural Act), a new Multicultural Policy and a new multicultural infrastructure. If these government initiatives are going to have any impact, adequate consideration must be given to sharing responsibilities with people at the 'grass roots' level. The multicultural parenting programme discussed in this presentation offer young people an opportunity to extend their knowledge of Canada's rich cultural heritage, to better understand their peers from different ethnic groups, and to be more aware of what it means to be a Canadian.

## General Comment

Both these new multicultural education experiences are presently being reviewed by educators in England, France and Spain for possible implementation on an experimental basis. The presenters will be willing to explore and discuss with delegates how multicultural parenting and multicultural friendship groups might be established on an experimental basis in different national settings.

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15.6.2

# TEACHER EDUCATION: ADVANCING MULTICULTURAL SENSITIVITY

## INTRODUCTION

T.E.A.M.S. was established to develop cultural understanding for education. This program has been implemented to provide teaching methods which may be utilized to help disadvantaged children to develop to their fullest potential.

## RATIONALE

The program provides skills appropriate for teachers, administrators, and counselors in a multicultural society to faciliate the students' education at their optimum levels of achievement, regardless of their age, sex, race, culture, social identities, or backgrounds. In order to accomplish this objective, it is necessary for institutions of higher education to provide training for the educators to become positive and productive communicators. Educators must become aware of all peoples' perceptions and sensitivities. It is also necessary to raise educators' level of communicative consciousness and make constructive personal and individual adjustments in order to become more effective in their roles and tasks.

The degree of age, sex, race, handicap, and poverty discrimination in America has been so much a part of the total socialization that much effort must go into helping educators to understand the parameters and impact of its presence in the schools and their programs.

According to the Bureau of Census, there are approximately 36 millionpeople below the official definition of poverty in the United States. Mostpoor children, who are in school, are faced with various kinds of problems. Many drop out early. The females often become unwed mothers who are incapable of coping with the pressures of parenthood. The males become dropouts before developing any marketable skills that enables them to become fully functioning citizens of the United States. Due to a lack of vital skills, they become alienated from the mainstream of society.

Change does not come about accidentally. Like any established institutional setting schools are slow to change. But to assume that schools can do nothing to change societial role stereotypes or to help children accept others whose cultural background is different from their own is to assume that schools are always followers and never leaders.

One of the obvious tasks of the teacher is to help these children learn, through meaningful experiences, that they are "as good as everyone else". In contemporary society, the status and image of the minority is often a negative one. The cue is given to disadvantaged and minority children, "your people are no good."

The magnitude of these practices still tends to be unattended in so many aspects of American education that programs must now make deliberate efforts to eliminate discrimination in all areas, in all aspects of program design, personnel assignments, curriculum implementation, and academic evaluation. McNeese State University has instituted a teacher training institute (T.E.A.M.S. Teacher Education; Advancing Multicultural Sensitivity) for the public school teachers and administrators from the five parish (county) area that it serves.

## PROGRAM OBJECTIVES

I. To help children to develop a positive attitude and respect for all people of all cultures, by using materials that project perception of minorities.

II. To help children perceive cultural pluralism as a positive force for better understanding by using visual materials to view the roles of minorities' heroes.

III. To create a classroom atmosphere that radiates cultural diversity pictures, group discussion, resource people, and parent conference. To provide opportunities to learn about and interact with a variety of ethnic groups and cultural experiences--community projects for young and old people.

IV. To emphasize self-concepts, self-esteem and individual feelings of students. This is implementations of the effective domain. Class activities are included that improve self-awareness and class discussions about the importance of feelings.

V. To plan lessons designed to break down stereotyped thinking. Speakers, of varied languages, are brought in to broaden student perspectives. Stories are shared from different cultures in a positive manner.

VI. To enhance the development of positive teacher attitudes toward students, which results in high expectations of each students. This stimulates a desire in the students to be successful; and in most cases, they do succeed.

VII. Through a variety of learning experiences, both cognitive and interactive, the teacher will help the students develop cultural hertiage, and help him appreciate and accept other cultures and races.

## ACTIVITIES INCLUDED IN THE PROJECT

In 1980, the College of Education developed a project for education majors with field experiences. All prospective teachers in the College of Education are required to include different field experiences as part of the requirements to earn a degree in education.

The field study is divided into two categories by providing students an experience in working with advantaged and disadvantaged students. The program also provides for a one-month summer student enrichment seminar where classroom teachers and twenty-five elementary students from the community spent two hours per day building positive perceptions toward life. The activities include one-on-one and small group sessions.

To aid school personnel with faculty in-service, a filmstrip was developed by the Director of the Kindergarten Program entitled, "Not For One, But For All" which emphasizes teaching strategies and a scope of multicultural problems. A video cassette recording has been developed to provide a demonstration lesson for classroom teachers in the implementation of multicultural educaton in the curriculum. A video cassette recording is entitled "Being Different Isn't Bad."

Each semester our in-service workshop on multicultural concepts is provided for classroom teachers and administrators.

A supplementary curriculum has been developed entitled, "Multicultural Education Supplementary Curriculum" to allow teachers to implement multicultural activities in all subject areas taught in the public schools.

The book entitled, "Teaching Young Children A Love Of Learning With TYCME was developed as a resource to help teachers secure appropriate activities for teaching the multicultural concept.

## GOALS

Traditionally the major responsibility of a teacher is to identify and meet each student's academic needs. Consequently, the only way of obtaining this goal is to make your instructions responsive to the racial and cultural backgrounds of the students in your classes. The curriculum and instructional materials must promote appreciation and acceptance of racial and cultural diversity. Whether you are teaching in a multicultural (a variety of cultures) or monocultural (one culture) school or classroom, an effective instructional approach must have a pluralistic focus.

Teachers are challenged in today's schools to break students from their hostility to those unlike themselves. The school system is challenged to produce curriculum and instructional materials which will draw a child into an experience with a culture unlike his or her own. Only by seeing a culture on its own terms can the sterotypes and preconceptions be drawn away. Excellent methods on introducing children into a cultural experience are through books, films, artfacts and dramas of a culture. Children who are drawn inside other cultures are capable of seeing American cultures more clearly (Ferguson May, 1980).

This is not an easy task for teachers because of their reluntance, or fear, to challenge in depth the belief and attitudes that are reflected in their thoughts and behavior. Many teachers prefer spending their time exploring educational concepts that do not have as many emotional implications as does the examination of prejudice and racism. It is easy for teachers to redirect their attention away from programs goals focusing on the examination of racial and cultural values to goals which are less threatening (Grant, 1977).

The educational needs of students in this diverse society have been discussed extensively in the past decade, yet, very little has happened substantially in the classroom.

In order to implement Multicultural Education in the curriculum and instructions for the student population that schools serve, teachers have to develop and assume two basic expectations:

1. Understanding yourself and becoming aware of your attitude toward those who are different from you in any way.
2. Teachers develop an understanding and acceptance of pluralism in their classrooms.

When the teachers begin to recognize that their own ethnic heritages are valuable, that their own family histories are relevant to learning and teaching, the battle is half won. Indeed, I am convinced that without this recognition and acceptance of self, the teacher will remain unable to communicate to his/her class or to the surrounding community the respect necessary for the creation of contact between life and learning (Dickeman).

Self-awareness should lead to the development of a positive self-image and attitude. Teachers might well consider pertinent materials, such as Jersild's "When Teachers Face Themselves", to help them explore the nature of their anxieties and biases. Jersild suggests that teacher self-awareness is "the most important requirement" for assisting students in their own self-awareness.

Many educators are not aware of their true attitudes toward people who are culturally different. Therefore, there is an attitude inventory included in this paper, so that anyone reading this article who may be interested in an evaluation of his/her personal attitude, may do so.

Thus, this work is an effort to accomplish excellence in the Educational System of the United States.

15.6.3

# Interactive Experiences to Synthesize Preservice Multicultural Education

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An effective preservice course in multicultural education for student teachers must contain a baseline of solid ethnic content and a variety of interactive experiences through media or other activities in order to synthesize knowledge, attitudes and awareness. The goals of such a dynamic course should include the development of future teacher, citizens who will be able to develop a global awareness and who will be able to make decisions and take thoughtful action based on facts, knowledge and understanding in an increasingly multi ethnic classroom, community and world (Banks, 1987). The prime objective of the teacher in the classroom should be to promote the self-actualization of potential in every student of every ethnic group (Bennett, 1986). These are demanding and challenging goals for everyone.

A good basic text that contains facts, knowledge and content concerning many ethnic groups is a prerequisite for a solid multicultural education course (Banks, 1987). Analyzing sources for teaching strategies in multicultural classrooms will reveal that those same "special strategies" are in reality the same good strategies for any regular classroom (Bennett, 1986). Therefore, an experiential approach through activities and various media becomes critical if attitudes, awareness, belief systems, and values must be examined as part of becoming a decision making, action taking, informed citizen in the classroom, community and the world.

To answer the question "What is a culture?" some effective activities that will involve all the students are to summarize the group in terms of individual heritage, and in terms of the Attitude Survey towards level of willing involvement in human relationships with other ethnic groups (Reach, 1981). The next logical step is to have students participate in a simulation experience of being part of one culture and trying to interact and figure out the "rules" of an unknown culture (Shirts, 1977). This cultural simulation tends to lead to a breakthrough of feelings and significant generalizations concerning cross cultural interactions which naturally lead to the next developmental step, activities to develop communication skills.

Then the question "How do we teach/learn discrimination/prejudice?" needs to be considered. The film, "Eye of the Storm," although not new, is an effective media for addressing the question and, also, for illustrating the effects of prejudice on children's classroom performance. Small group discussion of the strategies of teaching discrimination/prejudice and sharing examples of their personal experiences of discrimination should conclude the films viewing.

Instructional teams such as the Jigsaw Model are promoted as an effective teaching strategy in multicultural classrooms and they can be used as an exciting interactive component of the preservice class (Bennett, 1986). The class signs up for the Heritage team of their choice, such as Black American, Asian American, Mexican American and Native American Indian. Each team then selects the cultural aspects they will teach the class and develops the three levels of curriculum concepts for each area ie. key general concepts, intermediate concepts related to nation or region, specific concepts of their ethnic group. Next, the team decides on the type of delivery of the instruction they wish to use. The types of delivery are the cultural fair with displays, the cultural learning activity center with student interaction, or the cultural unit with concepts, activities and evaluation. The instructional teams then teach the class orally and turn in a written paper with a bibliography to the instructor.

The preservice multicultural course should end with a "global" emphasis. This is especially true today as the economy of one nation impacts on all economies, as communication improves through computer centers and satellites, and the like. There are two activities that work well to conclude a multi ethnic preservice course. One, give each student an unlabeled world map and have them fill in the names of all the countries that they know. Next, in small groups, have them put together a labeled world map puzzle and then work together to complete the labels of the countries they did not know by using the puzzle map. Another activity to emphasize the "global" view is to show the animated film "A Future for Every Child." This is a non narrated film which can provide the stimulus for reflective thinking/writing/discussing the basic concepts of a "global" interrelated view in terms of planet, nation and community.

The world, the nation, the community and the classroom are multicultural and they are interdependent with each other. The preservice course for student teachers on intercultural education must address the facts, knowledge, attitudes, awareness of a culturally pluralistic society. The students must be able to build a multicultural curriculum. They must become teachers who can make fact based, thinking decisions, and become teachers/citizens who can comfortably move among and teach those of other cultures. A preservice course providing meaningful, interactive activities and multi media experiences is a step towards synthesizing attitudes, awareness and knowledge.

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# 15.6.4 A COMPREHENSIVE CURRICULUM MODEL FOR THE PRESERVICE MULTICULTURAL PREPARATION OF EDUCATION PERSONNEL

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The importance of multicultural education in the preservice preparation of teachers has received renewed emphasis by many, including national accrediting agencies and teacher education reform task forces.

The National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE), for example, has included the following objectives in their recently released document entitled, Standards, Procedures, and Policies for the Accreditation of Professional Education Units (NCATE, 1987). "The curriculum for professional studies components should incorporate multicultural and global perspectives." Additionally, the document mandates that study and experiences be included which will enable students to "understand and apply appropriate strategies for individual learning needs, especially for culturally diverse and exceptional populations" and that "education students participate in field-based and/or clinical experiences with culturally diverse and exceptional populations."

Several states have mirrored this national leadership with similar guidelines for curriculum design. One of these states is the Commonwealth of Massachusetts. The State's Joint Task Force on Teacher Preparation recommended the following to all higher education institutions in their November, 1987 report (Commonwealth of Massachusetts, 1987). "It is essential that prospective teachers have an understanding and appreciation for the many different cultural backgrounds of students. It is also essential that teachers...convey this appreciation for diversity to their students. Racism, classism, sexism, and discrimination against individuals...are realities in contemporary schooling. Teachers must be prepared to help their students."

Given this philosophical mission, institutions should seek innovative ways in which to address these professional standards. Some institutions might be initially tempted to react in a tokenistic or superficial manner. In order to meet the spirit of the mandates and to responsibly prepare teachers for an increasingly pluralistic society, however, it is crucial that multicultural issues permeate the entire pre-service curriculum. Both general and professional education components should provide students with an awareness of the importance of ethnicity, race, culture, religion, socioeconomic status, gender, and exceptionalities.

The curriculum design which follows has been developed to illustrate how institutions may incorporate multicultural issues through a multidimensional approach. The model should be viewed as a thematic whole cutting vertically and horizontally across general and professional core courses and field-based experiences.

## General Education Core Requirements

The general education core should require each student to complete at least one course with a multicultural emphasis in each of the following academic categories: Behavioral Sciences, Humanities, Creative Arts, and Social Sciences. The outline below lists as examples specific courses from various academic disciplines. It should be noted that the courses listed are actual courses offered at Bridgewater State College in Bridgewater, Massachusetts (Bridgewater State College, 1988).

| Academic Area | Department | Course Title |
|---|---|---|
| Behavioral Sciences | Sociology | Global Human Issues |
| | Psychology | Non-Western Theories of Personality |
| Humanities | Philosophy | Liberation Ethics: Sexism, Racism, Ageism, and Third World Issues |
| | Religion | Comparative Religion: Eastern |
| Creative Arts | Music | Music in African Culture |
| | Art | Far Eastern Art |
| Social Sciences | Economics | International Economics |
| | Political Science | Politics and Development in the Third World |

## Professional Education Core Requirements

A minimum of one theoretical and pedagogical course within the professional education core should include a multicultural component. Foundation of education courses which typically approach educational issues from a humanistic, behavioral, historical, psychological, or sociological perspective are prime prospects for this purpose. Methodological courses should provide students with the knowledge base to develop lessons and utilize materials which will meet the needs of a culturally diverse population.

## Field-Based Experiences

Pre-student teaching field-based experiences should be required in selected general and professional education core courses. These experiences should be substantive and provide the opportunity to observe and actively participate in a variety of multicultural settings.

Although only six states (California, Kansas, Nevada, North Carolina, Ohio, Washington) mandate supervised student teaching in a multicultural setting according to the 1984 edition of the Manual on Certification and Preparation of Educational Personnel (NASDTEC, 1984), institutions should consider establishing a similar policy for their student teachers.

## Summary

The implementation of a multicultural preparation model which permeates the entire preservice curriculum as proposed in this paper requires the support of various institutional constituencies. Faculty, administrators, and students must affirm the importance of multicultural education and agree to work collaboratively in creating a culture which promotes and fosters this philosophical belief. Once this has been accomplished, institutions will be motivated to establish a multidimensional curriculum approach which will provide numerous opportunities for preservice teachers to study and interact with a variety of multicultural populations.

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15.7

# An Educology of Instruction: Jigsaw in the College Classroom

by

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***Abstract:*** *Tertiary educators are often content to use teacher focussed lecture and discussion techniques interspersed with student presented seminars. Recent research on cooperative learning in primary and secondary schools has claimed improvement in cognitive and affective student outcomes. Little study has been made of the effects of such techniques at tertiary level. Jigsaw is an approach to cooperative learning developed by Aronson (1978). In this approach, students work in supportive groups. Initially students learn only one part of the total material to be learned, and they bear the responsibility for teaching that part to other members of their group. The study reported here was an experiment conducted with a sample of 55 second year teacher education students. Students were randomly assigned to one of four classes. Two classes used the jigsaw approach, and two were taught by a more traditional teacher focussed, whole group approach. Students in all four classes received the same reading assignments, and they were taught by the same lecturer. At the end of an 8 week period, all students were tested on the same criterion material. The jigsaw students did not score significantly higher than the nonjigsaw classes ($p<0.05$). These results contradict claims for the superior efficacy of the jigsaw approach.*

*Background to the Study.* Unlike students in the primary or secondary classroom, students in the tertiary classroom are likely to encounter little variability. Despite changes in the last decade which have seen decreases in teacher-student ratios and a move from end-of-year examinations to more progressive forms of student assessment, tertiary educators are often content to use only teacher focussed lecture and discussion techniques interspersed with student presented seminars. Indeed, little information is available on the teaching techniques used at tertiary level. Turney (1977), in his survey of innovations in teacher education throughout Australia, made several references to group discussion and tutorial work, but noted only one instance, at Adelaide College of Advanced Education, in which there was seen to be a move towards some degree of cooperative learning. More recently, Everett and Entrekin (1987) examined preferred teaching methods in a sample of colleges and universities in Australia and New Zealand in 1978-79 and again in 1984. They reported that the less traditional methods were preferred by the smaller and newer colleges and universities, but that by 1984 even these had moved closer to the mean. It is of interest to teacher educators that an analysis of faculties' preferences for teaching methods revealed that, within universities, education (i.e. educology) faculties preferred the least traditional methods, while within colleges, this place was held by arts faculties, closely followed by economics, commerce and education (educology) faculties. Staff in the faculties of engineering, science and mathematics reported preference for the most traditional teaching methods.

A number of studies of tertiary level education have supported findings at primary and secondary levels for the superiority of student achievement under cooperative learning conditions (Deutsch, 1949; Haines and McKeatchie, 1967; Hammond and Goldman, 1961; Jones and Vroom, 1964; Laughlin and Johnson, 1966; Laughlin and McGlynn, 1967; Permlutter and Montmollin, 1952; Rosenbaum, Moore, Cotton, Cook, Hiesler, Shovar and Gray, 1980; Smith, Harrison, Madden and Sobel, 1957). Julian and Perry (1967) reported contrary findings: group competition and individualized instruction led to higher achievement than did pure cooperation.

*Origins and Development of the Jigsaw Approach.* In the literature on cooperative learning, a number of approaches have emerged, and Sharan (1980) classified them into two basic types: peer tutoring and group investigation. Peer tutoring encompasses Aronson's "jigsaw classroom," Devries' "teams-game-tournament" and Slavin's "student teams and academic divisions." Group investigation includes Johnson and Johnson's "cooperative goal structures" and Sharan's "small group teaching method" (Sharan, 1980:241).

The "jigsaw classroom" is an instructional approach designed by Aronson for fifth and sixth grades (Year 5 and 6 in school, or ages 10 to 12) in racially desegregated schools in the U.S. It is a process of peer tutoring. Students take responsibility for teaching some content to others in their group. Although reports are available for studies on the jigsaw process at primary level (Aronson, Blaney, Stephan, Sikes and Snapp, 1978), none appear to be available on its use at tertiary level. Aronson and Goode (1980) reported that although they were aware of its use at tertiary level, no systematic data had been collected on college students, even though the jigsaw procedures seem well suited to the degree of maturity evidenced by college students and their ability to communicate concepts, principles and procedures clearly to their peers. The absence of such studies indicates the need for studies of the use of the jigsaw approach at the tertiary level.

*The Treatment.* Fifty five students in the second year of their teacher education program were randomly assigned to four classes for instruction over a period of 8 weeks. The content, assigned readings and specified intended learning outcomes were the same for all classes, and the college lecturer responsible for the instruction was the same for all classes. The content was divided into the topics of (a) patterns of teaching, (b) methods of teaching (defining, explicating, explaining) and (c) evaluating within teaching. All four groups met for the same amount of time each week (one hour per week for 7 weeks), and in the 8th week, all groups took the same multiple choice test of 50 items. The test was developed from a specification chart which related test items to content and to intended learning outcomes, so as to assure test content validity.

Two classes were designated the "nonjigsaw classes." At the beginning of the 8 weeks, they were presented with the teacher specified intended learning outcomes and the assigned readings. They were told that they would be given a multiple choice test on the assigned readings during the 8th week. They then received instruction within a competitive learning environment which was teacher initiated, teacher focussed and whole class oriented. The methods used within this configuration of teaching were describing, relating, defining, explicating, explaining, illustrating, asking questions, answering questions and summarising.

The remaining two classes were designated the "jigsaw classes." At the outset, the classes were informed that they would be tested in the 8th week on the subject matter studied in the previous 7 weeks. In the first week, the college lecturer organised each of the classes into 5 "home" groups of students. Individual members within each of the 5 home groups received only the list of the specified intended learning outcomes and assigned readings relevant to a single topic (e.g. one of the members within a group received only the materials relevant to the topic of "patterns of teaching"; a second member in the group received only the materials relevant to the topic of "methods of teaching;" a third member received only the materials relevant to the topic of "evaluating within teaching"). The members of the 5 groups were then told to find all of the other students in the class who held the same materials as they did, to form a group with them and to help each other learn the content so as to achieve the specified intended learning outcomes. The 5 original home groups were then dissolved, and 5 new groups were formed from the members who held the same materials. After the members of the new groups had helped each other learn the content contained within their common materials, each student then had the responsibility to return to her or his orginal home group and to help the members of that group learn the specified content which the student had learned in the new group. The role of the teacher (i.e. the college lecturer) was one of being available for advice and for answering questions as they arose.

In the 8th week, the same multiple choice test of 50 items was administered under identical conditions to all four classes, and the mean test scores of the jigsaw classes was compared with that of the nonjigsaw.

***Results and Conclusions.*** The mean of the jigsaw classes ($N=29$) on the multiple choice test was 24.14 ($24.14=M_a$) out of a possible 50, the range of scores was 43 to 11, and the standard deviation was 6.1. The mean of the nonjigsaw classes ($N=26$) was 22.92 ($22.92=M_b$), the range was 36 to 17, and the standard deviation was 4.73. Posing the null hypotheses that $H_o\!:M_a=M_b$ and $H_o\!:M_a< M_b$, a one-tailed *t* test was used (because of the small size of the sample, less than 60) (cf. Downie and Heath, 1970: 167-187) to test the significance of the difference between the mean scores of the two groups. With 54 *df* (N-1, or 55-1), the probability for the difference between the means was more than 0.05 ($p>0.05$) (from Downie and Heath, 1970:310). The null hypotheses were accepted. The results indicated no superiority of a cooperative learning environment over a competitive one, as measured by mean scores on an achievement test.

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**ROUNDTABLE:** 15.8

## New attitudes to post-compulsory education in Queensland: Implications for teacher education.

Dr. David Warner
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Three trial Senior Colleges have been established in Queensland as part of a thrust to provide a more appropriate teaching-learning setting for the post-compulsory age client. A broad curriculum provides tertiary entrance, vocational, personal enrichment, adult-matriculation, Associate Diploma and other courses designed to allow clients the opportunity to develop curriculum to suit their needs, capacities, interests and ambitions. Central is the promotion of new attitudes to the client as the adult decision-maker, the development of the autonomous learner and the creation of freedom to choose and be within an environment which emphasises care and support for all personnel. As part of this, professional autonomy was provided to teachers in a non-line management system.

A range of transition problems were experienced by teachers from traditional teaching backgrounds. However, considerable success was experienced by certain novice teachers and by teachers from outside of traditional systems.

The discussions will centre on issues associated with teaching in this type of environment, causes of teacher concern, processes adopted to respond to these concerns and implications for both pre-service and in-service teacher education.

## 15.9 SYMPOSIUM: TEACHER EDUCATION IN THE SOUTH PACIFIC

Organizer: Lee Owens
School of Teaching and Curriculum Studies
The University of Sydney

As the scripture states, "In the Beginning was the Project ....". For many Australian teacher educators, their introduction to Teacher Education in the nearby Pacific island nations has been by way of participation in project assignments. Australian aid projects have had a regular presence in the education sectors of Pacific nations for several decades. In the last five years, however, the pace of aid involvement in education has increased, and the rigour expected from participants seems noticeably greater. The managerial demands and evaluation procedures of organisations such as IDP and AIDAB are placing considerable stress on the professionalism and competence of teacher educators who now become consultants, managers, and coordinators.

It is the nature of an aid project that by the time the agreements are signed and the funding arranged, it is already late to begin. As a result the activities of the project are frequently a hectic blur of deadlines, crises, misunderstandings, and compromises. The university or college academic on a project assignment looks in vain for an available information base containing documented past experience for clues to present dilemmas. Survive by your own wits. Some do - and some do not manage so well.

There are two purposes for this Symposium. First, it may serve as a meeting place for teacher educators with an interest in and experience of working in the Pacific. Opportunities in the next decade are likely to increase, so if we know who can be contacted for help, or advice, or resources, then cooperation might be effectively organised, and the job done better. Second, the need is obvious for research to be done into all aspects of education in the Pacific, as is the need for the compilation of this research in easily accessible locations, journals, databases. This, too, is better done collaboratively rather than individualistically, particularly since the distances to be covered are vast, and the demands of cross-cultural communication frequently benefit from extra insights and perspectives. Samples of current research into teacher education in the Pacific will be tabled for discussion, and suggestions will be canvassed. One paper in preparation is an analysis of the reactions of first-year students to the beginning of a brand new Diploma in Teaching course in a Pacific country. Another is a discussion of a highly significant activity in many projects - the training of national counterpart staff who work alongside of, and eventually replace, expatriate project consultants.

Other appropriate issues are: curriculum for teacher education programs in Pacific nations, scheduling and supervising practice teaching, relationships between College programs and Ministry activities such as curriculum development and careers advising, selection for further education.

Further presentations are being sought, and enquiries to the Organizer are welcome.

15.10.1 **ISSUES OF CHANGE IN THE PRACTICUM**

## Outline of the paper to be given by Trevor Hutchins and Robert Boyd, Victoria College

## INTRODUCTION

In Australia there has been considerable recent interest in the Practicum. A conference on the practicum (Geelong, 1986), and recent reviews by Price (1987a & b), Pearson (1988), and Tisher (1986) following the pioneering work of Turney et.al. (1982, 1985), are tangible evidence of this interest. Interest is also evident from the increasing number of overseas papers focussing on the practicum (Zeichner, 1986).

Many writers express concern that the practicum is not as effective as it should be in allowing trainees to learn about teaching (Zeichner, 1982, 1986). Cruikshank and Armaline (1986) develop a set of five characteristics or dimensions along which the nature of the practicum may vary :

1. The context or setting in which the practicum occurs. This can vary from schools, community, field, to sites within the training institution.
2. The directness and concreteness of the experience. This can be at one of four levels; real teaching in classrooms, teaching in a contrived setting, observing real teaching, and observing simulations.
3. Purpose of the program. This can vary from an emphasis on producing craftspeople versus professionals capable of using "critical reflectivity".
4. Duration or extensiveness of teaching, ranging from short term to extensive.
5. Placement or sequence of the program.

Zeichner (1986) suggests we don't really know what is happening to trainees during the practicum and we ought to find out. In the meantime he suggests that changes must occur in the practicum to remove the learning obstacles. Price (1987) agrees with Zeichner and suggests the change process may begin with an examination and use of the following areas in the practicum; laboratory schools, demonstration lessons, internships and technology.

The current paper examines issues of change in the practicum from two perspectives.

1. The changes that we should find in trainees as a result of the practicum.

2. The changes we as teacher educators may need to make in our practicum programs to ensure that the trainees have a chance of learning what we intend they should.

## CHANGES IN THE TRAINEE

### What changes have occurred?

It is obvious that change in trainee attitudes, values and behaviours can and do occur during the practicum. Zeichner (1980, 1985,) argues that during the usual practicum as many positive as negative changes occur. In looking for changes to remedy this Zeichner (1985) suggests the bulk of the research into the practicum suffers from "conceptual and methodological limitations". Zeichner (1985,) states that our poor state of knowledge about the practicum is because,

> "...research to date has taken too restrictive a view of teacher development (e.g. ignoring unanticipated outcomes) and ... (failed) ... to attend to the complex, dynamic, and multidimensional nature of settings and people, individually and in interaction."

The changes found in trainees generally relate to the technological aspects of teaching leading to an emphasis on skills such as control, management and presentation of content. Zeichner (1980) suggests this convergence on utilitarian teaching perspectives may be due to one or all of the following influences; the cooperating teacher, the classroom's ecological environment, and the conservative influence of the school bureaucracy.

### What changes should occur?

Wildman and Niles (1987, p.25) offer the following comment on the necessary changes.

> "Increasingly, the model of teaching as a technical process is being challenged, and a very different image of the teacher is emerging. Teachers need to be more reflective and in control of their own professional lives."

The dilemma of a focus on skill development versus an attitude of inquiry is addressed by Zeichner and Teitelbaum (1982). The needs based approach fostered by Fuller (1969, 1971) is discussed and some of its limitations addressed. A major concern is the failure of this approach to demonstrate that meeting the early needs allows the trainee to move to more mature levels. A further concern is the initial emphasis on survival may cut off possibilities for future growth. Dewey (1904, p.15) warned that, "... immediate skill may be got at the cost of power to go on growing."

"One alternative to a personalized approach to instruction during student teaching is to construct the experience with an emphasis on fostering inquiry about teaching and about the contexts in which teaching is embedded (Zeichner and Teitlebaum, 1982, p.102) ."

Zeichner and Teitelbaum (1982) base their concept of "inquiry" on Van Manen's (1977) three levels of reflectivity. At the first level the concern is with the technical application of educational knowledge. The second level is action based on a clarification of assumptions and predispositions underlying those actions and assessing the consequences of each action. The third level is critical reflectivity and involves a consideration of moral and ethical criteria.

Zeichner and Teitelbaum (1982) recognise that teachers and schools cannot change the social order but they do want teachers to be empowered to reflect on their life and actions and act to improve the world in a decent, humane way. Zeichner and Teitelbaum (1982) do not advocate ignoring skills or trainee concerns, but see the need to move teacher education, and specifically the practicum, beyond the most basic level of reflectivity.

How do changes occur?

The program outlined by Zeichner and Teitelbaum (1982), involving specific inquiry tasks, is aimed at changing the behaviour and teaching performance of trainees. By controlling the tasks and the college program they are attempting to gain positive changes. A different perspective on this issue, and its relation to the practicum, is provided by Gliessman (1981).

Gliessman (1981), p.1 & 2) states that,

> "... to learn how to teach from experience alone is far too uncertain ... teaching skills can be learned and teaching performance modified through methods that provide for control and guidance of experience."

Gliessman (1981) discusses a number of forms of learning that have relevance for the practicum; learning through observation, concept learning, learning through practice, and learning through feedback.

The research cited by Gliessman (1981) indicates that observational learning and concept learning are important in the development of teaching skill. Gliessman, Pugh and Bielat (1979) found that conceptual training alone was sufficient to influence the use of that skill in a practical teaching situation. These findings call into question the assumption that practice is the key aspect in developing teaching skills.

The critical variable in the use of the skills is the context in which the trainee is required to work. If the cooperating teacher uses the skills modelled in the training sessions then the trainee is much more likely to use that behaviour (Zeichner, 1986). It is therefore essential that trainees have appropriate models and the skills to learn from the observational experiences provided by these models. It is also essential that the practicum context allows the trainee to practice the use of the skills to be developed.

It is interesting that both Zeichner and Gliessman, who approach the development of an understanding of teaching and teaching skills from quite different perspectives, are strongly arguing for increased control over the practicum experiences. To provide appropriate practicum experiences implies changes in the nature of the practicum.

## CHANGE IN THE NATURE OF THE PRACTICUM

Why would we change the practicum?

It is clear from studies, reviews and personal experience that teacher educators have many concerns about the practicum as it is currently structured (Price, 1987; Turney et.al., 1982). There are very real concerns that it is not a particularly effective setting to learn about teaching (Zeichner, 1986).

What can be changed in the practicum?

The taxonomy developed by Cruikshank and Armaline (1986) and used as a basis for the discussion of concerns about the practicum, also indicates aspects that could be changed. Basing his discussion on Cruikshank and Armaline (1986) and Zeichner (1986), Price (1987) lists four aspects that may be developed as changes to the practicum.

### Changes in Control.

It is clear from the preceding discussion that many teacher educators involved in the practicum are arguing for greater control. Control is sought over the following practicum aspects :

1. The quality of the model observed by trainees on practicum is critical (Gliessman, 1981). The "validity" and "reality" of the practicum, the relationship that develops between teacher and trainee, and the nature of assessment, ensure the model has a powerful impact on the trainee's teaching behaviour.

2. There has been concern over the range of models that trainees encounter (Hutchins and Symington, 1987), and control is necessary to ensure this range is broadened.

3. Control over the range of tasks that trainees are asked or allowed to perform (Goodman, 1985), is again necessary to broaden this experience.

4. The limited contexts that trainees choose to encounter during their training is another area of concern (Zeichner, 1986) and need broadening.

5. Control over opportunities for discussion with teachers/models (Lange, 1971; Williams, 1981), will allow trainees to explore skill and contextual issues.

6. Control is sought over the nature and quality of supervision (Smyth, 1984; Zeichner, 1986), to allow students a more even and beneficial form of feedback.

7. Control is sought over the link between theory and practice (Turney et.al., 1985). If the practicum experience is more directly linked to the academic component trainees may value it more highly.

## SPECIFIC CHANGES

The implications and practicalities of changing some of these aspects will be developed in this paper. Specific illustrations of two programs developed and run at Victoria College, and based on the concerns expressed here, form the basis of later papers in this symposium.

# 15.10.2 TEACHING IN CULTURALLY DIVERS ENVIRONMENTS : A DEMONSTRATION SCHOOL EXPERIENCE FOR TRAINEE TEACHERS

**J.BAKER AND B.BOYD**

In 1987 staff in the Department of Learning and Teaching implemented two innovative practicum experiences for the second year primary teacher education students. These involved a reconceptualised demonstration school experience which has been previously described by Boyd and Symington (1987) Back to the Future : reconceptualising the demonstration school : S.P.A.T.E. 1987. A comprehensive evaluation of this development involving four hundred and twenty students, thirty five College and school staff and an independent evaluator, suggested that this model of operation was of considerable value for the following reasons. First it gave the College a way of providing a controlled and focussed experience for all students; it placed students in a situation where they observed exemplary teaching in a selected area; it required them to improve skills of observation and analysis; it gave the College and school an opportunity to work cooperatively and collaboratively in the structuring and implementation of a practicum experience.

The choice of culturally diverse schools as the sites for the second demonstration lessons was based on fact that the majority of the College's training schools and the homes and school experiences of our students are predominantly middle class, Anglo Australian and monolingual in nature. In recent years many exit students have been appointed to the high migrant schools in the inner, northern and western suburbs, where many of the sixty most common languages spoken by our ethnic communities are in everyday use.

It was therefore important to us that our students had at least some experience of these situations and that they were challenged to think about how a teacher caters for student learning in a way that takes account of the wide range of languages and linguistic abilities in the classroom.

Four foci were selected for the program and these typify a whole language and child centred approach to learning. The foci were : planning for language and learning; ways of catering for a wide range of linguistic abilities; the use of cooperative grouping and the use of peers as teachers. The schools and teachers selected were already working in such a way and the philosophy and approaches to learning and teaching in the College courses were congruent with those used in the demonstration schools.

The College/Schools planning group met several times. The plan adapted was to select three children of varying levels of English language acquisition to be observed by the students during the demonstration lesson. Prior to the session the teacher described the range of linguistic ability within the classroom and outlined how he/she planned to cater for the needs of all children, but specifically the three to be observed. Students observed and analysed the lesson in terms of how the teacher planned learning experiences for all children; how the wide range of language abilities were catered for; how non-English speakers were involved; the roles taken by English language speakers, first and second phase learners; the interactions between the teacher and the working groups and finally observation and analysis of the products of the lesson. A post lesson discussion involving teacher, students and College staff then ensued in all schools involved.

Prior to the demonstration school experience all students were trained in observational techniques using videoed lessons of teachers working in culturally and linguistically diverse classrooms. Teachers were modelling the use of mixed ability, cooperative groups and a language and learning across the curriculum approach.

While the students were in the school we felt it important that they be informed of the schools language programs and in the afternoon session they observed bi-lingual, community language and T.E.S.L. programs.

Quite clearly the demonstration school/lesson idea enables the College to "select" and "advance" a given model of teaching. In this case we wanted the students to see primary practices that supported non-English speaking children within the normal classroom, where the elements of E.S.L. teaching were an integral part of the daily procedures. We wanted the students to see that it is possible and even desirable to use peers as teachers of language and to observe the kinds of classroom activities that encourage talking in a purposeful, planned way. We also wanted to enable our students to see in practice, approaches that were recommended by the Ministry of Education in its English Language Framework document. In the draft statement (1987) some of the following strategies were advocated :

(i) "... the emphasis is increasingly on teaching E.S.L. students within the mainstream classroom rather than by withdrawal"; (p.41)

(ii) Flexible mixed ability grouping should be implemented in order to provide a range of language models and a variety of feedback;

(iii) E.S.L. students need activities that vary the level of concentration as they are prone to suffer from stress and fatigue.

(iv) The maintenance of first language is essential for conceptual development.

(v) There should be extensive opportunity for oral interaction with reading and writing skills being developed in conjunction with oral skills.

We were also interested in gaining some indication of the effectiveness of the experience for the students and particularly to see if it in any way altered their views on working with non-English speaking children in those culturally diverse schools. A pre-test/post-test questionnaire was administered which assessed student views and knowledge about a range of language teaching practices representing the whole spectrum of language teaching practices. The questionnaire and results will be included in the full paper but for purposes of this summary the trends on the post-test suggested that students were more positively inclined towards the use of peer teaching; more negatively inclined regarding the use of withdrawal groups as the major teaching strategy for non English speakers; and were more inclined to believe that children come with rich experiences and language that can form the basis for teaching within the normal classroom.

In summary, we believe the reconceptualised demonstration lesson/school has potential as one of several different kinds of practical experiences we can structure for our students. It enables the College to select and structure experiences that support ideas and practices implicit in its College based programs and work cooperatively with schools to demonstrate the practical application of a range of learning and teaching strategies.

## RELATED PAPERS/REFERENCES

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## 15·10·3 ALTERNATIVE PRACTICUM EXPERIENCES : OBSERVATION OF PRIMARY CLASSES OPERATING ON CAMPUS

**Outline of the paper to be presented by Trevor Hutchins and Frances Burton, Victoria College**

### OBSERVATIONAL LEARNING

> "Observational learning, the ability to acquire new responses as a result of observing the behaviour of a model (Bandura, 1968), constitutes an important learning strategy (Berowder, Schoen, and Lentz, 1986)."

Over many years teacher trainers have used a variety of techniques to employ observational learning as a basis for modelling. Some of the techniques have been; role-playing (Shaftel), 1867), micro-teaching (Turney et.al., 1980), filmed/video-taped protocols (Gliessman & Pugh, 1978), demonstration lessons (Boyd and Symington, 1987), and laboratory schools (Nolan, 1986). There is also no doubt that trainee teachers learn a great deal through observation on practicum experiences (Zeichner, 1986).

There are, however, some concerns over the value of what trainees learn in this manner when:

- the experiences are unstructured (Williams, 1981);
- they are based on a limited range of teaching models (Zeichner, 1986);
- they are limited in content areas (Hutchins and Symington, 1987);
- they are practiced in limited practicum contexts (Zeichner, 1986).

### STRUCTURED OBSERVATION

It was suggested by Boyd, Hutchins and Symington (1987), that providing a focus for observation should assist trainees to develop and check their observational skills. This provision of a specified focus for observation is what is meant by "structured observation".

Brody, Lahey, and Combs (1978), Lange (1971), and Dillashaw (1982) all support the view that structured observation of skills leads to changes in student practice. In each of these studies the structure was provided by observation instruments. The use of these instruments seemed to assist trainee learning.

## DISCUSSION WITH THE MODEL

Lange (1971) and Williams (1981) suggest that discussion with the "model" may enhance the learning process. Unfortunately in both these studies there was not an increase in teacher/trainee discussion. In one program that deliberately built in such discussion, trainees appreciated the opportunity and found it useful in developing their understanding of the aspects observed (Hutchins, Boyd, and Symington, 1987). Unfortunately the study did not provide information about teaching skill development or usage. Hutchins, Boyd and Symington (1987) did find that students who had the opportunity to observe and then discuss with the model reported greater confidence in their ability to learn about teaching through observation.

## CONTEXT OF THE MODEL

Observation of teaching varies in "directness" and "concreteness" (Cruikshank & Armaline, 1986). Some studies have used videos (Lange, 1971), while some use "live" classes (Boyd and Symington, 1987) to present the model to be observed. The impact of these different observational stimuli on learning is unclear, but trainees prefer direct and concrete experiences (Hutchins, Boyd and Symington, 1987). Throughout a trainees program at Victoria College we use a range of stimuli for observational learning and modelling. One way for "live" experiences is to use our on campus classroom called The Teaching Skills Laboratory (TSL).

The current paper reports one TSL observation program that was run for all year one primary trainees (N=409) during 1987.

## THE TSL PROGRAM

### RATIONALE

The program flows from some of the concerns noted in the previous section; reasserting control over the models observed by trainees and ensuring that they have the skills to learn from their observational experiences.

The program was designed to :

1. allow trainees to see the importance of observation skills as a basis for learning about teaching;

2. develop trainees skills in observing classroom activities, and provide an opportunity through discussion to check their inferences;

3. directly link the trainee's academic program to the practicum.

## PLANNING

Over a series of meetings the teaching staff of the Organization for Learning and Teaching 100, chose classroom communication as the focus for the program. Within this focus, four specific foci; lesson pacing, on task behaviour, verbal and non-verbal communication were selected and six observation instruments developed. These instruments were presented in booklet form to all trainees.

Two teachers were invited to join the project and discussed the rationale and focus with the college staff. Following these discussions the teachers planned a series of five Mathematics lessons and five Integrated Studies lessons. These were specially developed to ensure that the trainees had the chance to observe the foci of the tasks. The lessons from both teachers were also presented to the trainees in booklet form.

## THE PROGRAM

Prior to any observation the trainees completed a pretest questionnaire that examined their perception of the importance of observation.

To ensure that the trainees were well prepared , OLT classes prior to the experience covered the communication skills that were to be the foci of the program.

The TSL program was held during the Practicum. The trainees were divided into groups of approximately 20 (20 sessions x 20 trainees, actual N=409), then released from their normal program to participate in a half day program. Morning sessions were on Maths and afternoons Integrated Studies.

A typical session was composed as follows :

9.00 College staff and trainees went through a briefing session. The six tasks/instruments were outlined, specific students allocated to each task and the data gathering practised with the aid of a video-taped lesson.

9.40 The teacher provided an outline of the lesson to be observed and discussed how it fitted in with the preceding and following lessons. Trainees were free to ask questions that would help them focus on their specific task.

10.00 Trainees observed the teacher taking the lesson and completed their observational tasks.

11.00 Teacher, trainees and college staff debriefed the lesson with the use of the specific data gathered by the trainees. This session finished at 12.00 with the trainees completing an evaluation questionnaire.

## EVALUATION OF THE TSL PROGRAM

### PRETEST DATA

The short pretest was designed to examine the students' perception of specific experiences relevant to learning about teaching. Students were asked to rate each aspect on, (a) the value to them, and (b) their current ability to use that experience to learn about teaching. The paper will develop several issues from the pretest data.

#### What type of experiences do students value as opportunities to learn about teaching?

Table 1 presents the students rating of the value to them of a number of practicum activities that offer them opportunities to learn about teaching.

Students value actually teaching above all other options for learning about teaching. This is followed by interacting with pupils and assisting in the classroom. Next in order come observing in the classroom, interacting with staff then interacting with peers.

#### How do students rate their current ability to use various situations to learn about teaching?

Table 2 presents the students rating of their current ability to learning about teaching from each of the activities.

Teaching lessons is again given the highest rating by students despite the fact that they had only been on practicum for 10 days and had not been expected to take formal lessons. Students have already come to the view that active teaching is more likely to allow them to learn something about teaching. This suggestion is further strengthened by the student's perceived greater ability to learn about teaching from interacting with students than from observing classroom practice, or talking to others.

## POST-TEST DATA

The evaluation questionnaire asked questions about each foci; pacing, "on task" behaviour, verbal and non verbal communication.

Data will be presented in the paper relevant to the following questions :

- What components of the program were helpful to students in learning how teachers pace their lessons?
- What components of the program were helpful to students in learning how teachers ensure that students are "on task"?.
- What components of the program were helpful to students in helping them focus on teacher's verbal communication?
- What components of the program were helpful to students in helping them focus on teacher's non-verbal communication?

## PRE-POST COMPARISONS

Table 3 indicates the pre-post comparison of the student's current ability to learn about teaching through observation. Prior to the experience 31.7 percent of students rated their ability very highly. Immediately after the observation program there was a shift away from this end of the scale to a more moderate position. This significant shift indicates that students re-evaluated their ability to learn through observation. Trainees report that they were not as effective as they first thought.

## DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The paper will discuss the implications of the findings and further detail the practical aspects of such program.

Programs such as this may be needed, not only for students to practice their observational skills, but also to allow them to learn their strengths and weaknesses. The students are now aware that they need further training in observation.

**TABLE 1** -The student's rating each activity on its value to them in learning about teaching.

| | Percentage of students | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Scale: | Low | | | | High |
| **Activity** | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| Teaching lessons | 0.3 | 0.6 | 4.7 | 29.2 | 65.5 |
| Assisting in the classroom | 0.3 | 2.0 | 17.0 | 44.0 | 36.0 |
| Observing classroom practice | 0.6 | 2.0 | 20.5 | 36.5 | 38.0 |
| Interacting with pupils | 0.6 | 1.3 | 8.7 | 28.8 | 60.5 |
| Interacting with staff | 0.6 | 5.0 | 22.8 | 45.0 | 26.3 |
| Interacting with peers | 1.0 | 10.7 | 37.5 | 34.7 | 16.0 |

**TABLE 2** - The student's rating of their current ability to learn about teaching from each activity.

| | Percentage of students | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Scale: | Low | | | | High |
| **Activity** | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| Teaching lessons | 1.0 | 4.5 | 18.3 | 36.2 | 40.0 |
| Assisting in the classroom | 0.0 | 2.5 | 19.0 | 48.5 | 29.5 |
| Observing classroom practice | 0.6 | 4.5 | 19.0 | 44.0 | 31.7 |
| Interacting with pupils | 0.0 | 1.6 | 15.9 | 44.5 | 37.6 |
| Interacting with staff | 0.6 | 9.7 | 36.9 | 42.7 | 20.0 |
| Interacting with peers | 2.9 | 11.7 | 30.4 | 41.7 | 13.3 |

**TABLE 3** - Pre and post-test comparisons of students rating of their ability to learn about teaching through observation of lessons.

| | Very Low | | | | Very High |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Scale | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| Pre-test | 0.6 | 4.5 | 19 | 44 | 31.7 |
| Post-test | 0 | 1.5 | 42.5 | 45.7 | 10.3 |

16.1

# Teaching Practice and Intensive Supervision by Campus Staff: A Survey of Teacher and Student Perceptions.

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The Murdoch University Tutor Supervisor scheme was instituted in 1974 as a way to address the perceived shortcomings of established methods of teaching practice supervision (Marsh & Hill, 1976). It involves the stationing of a University staff member ('Tutor Supervisor') with a group of up to 10 Student Teachers within each practice school. Tutor Supervisors are selected primarily on the basis of their record of successful and innovative classroom teaching but also on their capacity to contribute to academic courses on campus. The Tutor Supervisor remains at a school for the duration of a practice together with a Murdoch caravan that is used as a tutorial room, preparation area, micro-teaching classroom and counselling venue. A three-way interaction involving each Student Teacher, their Cooperating Teacher and the Tutor Supervisor, is employed as the basis for both the advisory and evaluative aspects of practice supervision. When not involved in the supervision or administration of practice teaching, Tutor Supervisors teach in campus-based courses, particularly those concerning the various curriculum areas and so have a number of distinct roles to play in the Teacher Education programme (Schibeci & Hill, 1978).

The Tutor Supervisor Scheme Evaluation Study examined the perceptions of three groups who are affected by the Scheme (Student Teachers, Cooperating Teachers and Principals). Although the Scheme was designed to minimise the limitations of more traditional methods of practice, no more than anecdotal evidence has been available until the present concerning its success in this regard. Clearly it is also possible that in deviating so far from traditional approaches, further problems that did not previously exist would be created. The survey upon which this paper was based was devised following a consideration of both the original aims of the Scheme and various sources of feedback about the way it currently was operating.

## Method

### Sample

Eight primary schools and five secondary schools, representing approximately three quarters of the schools used by Murdoch University's school experience programme comprised the sample schools. As well as Principals from all 13 Schools, the sample included 77 Cooperating Teachers from lower, middle and upper levels in the primary schools and science, social studies, English and mathematics in the secondary schools. An entire year group of 87 Student Teachers exiting from their teacher education courses comprised the remainder of the sample.

### The Questionnaire

A 44 item questionnaire was developed focussing on the following six aspects of the Tutor Supervisor scheme.

(i) Tutor Supervisor-Student Teacher Interaction
(ii) School-University Liaison
(iii) Tutor Supervisor-Cooperating Teacher Interaction
(iv) Tutor Supervisor Expertise
(v) The Murdoch Caravan
(vi) Assessment of Student Teachers

Each item consisted of a statement and a five point rating scale of 'Nil' to 'A great deal'. For each of the six aspects, the respondents also were invited to make an open-ended comment. For 32 of the items, respondents were asked to compare what they thought should happen with what actually did happen in practice (should vs. do items). Finally, the respondents were asked to rate the overall effectiveness of the Scheme and comment on those parts which should be either retained or changed.

### Procedure

All questionnaires were identified with only code numbers, to ensure anonimity of respondents. All distribution and collection of questionnaires was carried out through an independent research institute. A research assistant distributed and collected questionnaires from schools but for the Student Teachers, these procedures were handled by mail.

### Results

Response rates were 85%, 81% and 45% for the Principals, Cooperating Teachers and Student Teachers respectively. A summary of results for the 44 rating items is reported in Table 1. For the item concerning the overall effectiveness of the Scheme, a rating across all groups of 5.35 was produced (on a scale from 1, 'very poor' to 7, 'outstanding'). A substantial majority of comments about the Scheme's effectiveness were clearly positive (Student Teachers 84%; School Staff, i.e. Principals and Cooperating Teachers, 76%) with explicit references also being made about the advantages of the Scheme over other forms of supervision (Student Teachers, 26%; School Staff, 23%). None of the comments made unfavorable comparisons between the Scheme and other forms of supervision. The highest mean rating across all groups for the remaining items was 4.45 for the importance attached to Tutor Supervisors having had recent experience teaching in school classrooms. The lowest overall mean rating of 2.35 was given to the extent to which there is confusion between the supervision roles of the Tutor Supervisor and the Cooperating Teacher.

Table 1

|  |  | 1-way | ANOVA |  |  | 2-way ANOVA |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
|  |  | P | CT | ST | Overall | p(Group x S/D) |
|  |  | $\bar{x}$ | $\bar{x}$ | $\bar{x}$ | $\bar{x}$ |  |
| **(I) TUTOR SUPERVISOR-STUDENT TEACHER INTERACTION** |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| **What proportion of their time should/do Tutor Supervisors spend in classrooms observing Student Teachers actually teaching?** | should | 3.67 | 3.50 | 3.69 | 3.59 |  |
|  | do | 3.09 | 2.67* | 3.11* | 2.87 |  |
| **How much time should/do Tutor Supervisors spend talking to Student Teachers?** | should | 3.58 | 3.73 | 4.00 | 3.81 |  |
|  | do | 3.27 | 3.42 | 3.55 | 3.45 |  |
| **How much should/do Tutor Supervisors be responsible for giving practical advice to Student Teachers?** | should | 4.17 | 3.88* | 4.35* | 4.08 |  |
|  | do | 3.27 | 3.33 | 3.41 | 3.36 |  |
| **How much should/do Tutor Supervisors be responsible for giving Student Teachers feedback about their teaching performance?** | should | 4.25 | 4.12 | 4.36 | 4.22 |  |
|  | do | 3.72 | 3.37 | 3.61 | 3.50 |  |
| **How much should/do Tutor Supervisors be responsible for teaching classroom management skills to Student Teachers?** | should | 3.58 | 3.52 | 3.85 | 3.64 |  |
|  | do | 3.18 | 2.69 | 2.82 | 2.79 |  |
| **How much should/do the Tutor Supervisors give emotional support to Student Teachers while they are in schools?** | should | 3.92 | 3.85 | 3.64 | 3.78 |  |
|  | do | 3.36 | 3.40 | 3.28 | 3.35 |  |
| **How much should/do Tutor Supervisors be responsible for helping Student Teachers develop strategies to cope with the stress of teaching?** | should | 4.08 | 3.86 | 3.69 | 3.38 |  |
|  | do | 3.09 | 2.84 | 2.71 | 2.82 |  |
| **How much importance do you place on Tutor Supervisors remaining at the school full time during the Student Teacher's entire teaching practice?** |  | 4.33 | 3.96 | 3.95 | 4.00 |  |
| **To what extent are there good working relationships between Tutor Supervisors and Student Teachers?** |  | 4.27 | 4.15 | 3.84 | 4.05 |  |
| **(II) SCHOOL-UNIVERSITY LIAISON** |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| **How much should/do Tutor Supervisors help Student Teachers adjust from the university to the school environment** | should | 4.08 | 3.97 | 3.77 | 3.91 |  |
|  | do | 3.40 | 3.03 | 3.10 | 3.09 |  |
| **How much should/do Tutor Supervisors do the school's administrative tasks associated with Murdoch Student Teachers' teaching practice?** | should | 3.09 | 3.39 | 3.63 | 3.44 |  |
|  | do | 3.20 | 3.04 | 3.41 | 3.18 |  |
| **How much should/do Tutor Supervisors bring new ideas from Murdoch University to schools?** | should | 3.67 | 3.70 | 3.49 | 3.62 |  |
|  | do | 2.58 | 2.69* | 3.22* | 2.86 | * (.02) |
| **How much should/do Tutor Supervisors be responsible for linking the theoretical and practical aspects of education?** | should | 4.58 | 4.02 | 4.18 | 4.14 |  |
|  | do | 3.54 | 3.14 | 3.10 | 3.17 |  |
| How much should/do Tutor Supervisors provide schools with information about Murdoch University, its programmes, resources and teacher education philosophy? | should | 3.50 | 3.65 | 3.92 | 3.72 |  |
|  | do | 2.17 | 2.43 | 2.68 | 2.49 |  |

(*) denotes significant difference at the .050 level

## (III) TUTOR SUPERVISOR-COOPERATING TEACHING INTERACTION

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| How much communication should/is there be between Tutor Supervisors and Cooperating Teachers? | should | 4.82* | 4.03 | 4.19 | 4.17 | * (.03) |
| | is | 3.73 | 3.35 | 3.03 | 3.28 | |
| To what extent is there confusion between the supervision roles of the Tutor Supervisor and the Cooperating Teacher? | | 1.73 | 2.15 | 2.84* | 2.35 | |
| To what extent are there good working relationships between Tutor Supervisors and Cooperating Teachers? | | 4.09 | 3.97 | 3.24* | 3.73 | |

## (IV) TUTOR SUPERVISOR EXPERTISE

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| How much importance do you place on Tutor Supervisors having had recent experience teaching in school classrooms? | | 5.00* | 4.32* | 4.51 | 4.45 | |
| To what extent are Tutor Supervisors with only Secondary School teaching experience capable of giving useful advice to Primary School Student Teachers? | | 2.40 | 2.40 | 2.55 | 2.44 | |
| To what extent are Tutor Supervisors with only Primary school teaching experience capable of giving useful advice to Secondary School Student Teachers? | | 3.90* | 2.60 | 2.71 | 2.77 | |
| To what extent should Tutor Supervisors advise Student Teachers in subject areas outside the Tutor Supervisor's own subject area? | | 3.11 | 2.97 | 3.29 | 3.09 | |

## (V) THE MURDOCH CARAVAN

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| How much of the Student Teacher's time should be/is spent in the Murdoch caravan? | should | 2.82 | 2.44 | 2.56 | 2.52 | |
| | is | 3.60 | 3.15 | 2.97 | 3.13 | |
| To what extent should/do Student Teachers use the Murdoch caravan as a resource centre? | should | 3.45 | 3.21 | 3.23 | 3.24 | * (<.0001) |
| | do | 3.60 | 3.24 | 2.62* | 3.05 | |
| How much should/does the Murdoch caravan provide a sense of security for Student Teachers while they are in schools? | should | 3.00 | 2.90 | 3.31 | 3.05 | *(.04) |
| | does | 3.55 | 3.57 | 3.46 | 3.53 | |
| How much importance do you place on the Murdoch caravan being at the school for Student Teachers' entire teaching practice? | | 3.67 | 3.18 | 3.67 | 3.41 | |

## (VI) ASSESSMENT OF STUDENT TEACHERS

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| To what extent do Tutor Supervisors provide a fair assessment of Student Teachers' ability to teach? | | 3.91 | 3.66 | 3.66 | 3.69 | |
| To what practical extent does Tutor Supervisors' role as assessors interfere with their role as Advisors? | | 2.18 | 2.44 | 2.47 | 2.43 | |
| To what extent is the Evaluation Conference between the Tutor Supervisor, the Cooperating Teacher and the Student Teacher a fair way of making the Student Teachers's final assessment? | | 4.36 | 3.98 | 3.37* | 3.80 | |
| Considering the possible ways that Student Teachers may be supervised during their teaching practice, how effective is the Murdoch Tutor Supervisor scheme as a method of supervision? (7 point scale) | | 5.50 | 5.10* | 5.75* | 5.35 | |

One-way analysis of variance showed that for 11 of the 44 items, there were significant differences in mean ratings among the respondent groups. A respondent group by should versus do factor two-way analysis of variance showed a main effect for the should versus do factor across all 16 issues covered by this type of item. For all but two of the 16 issues, the mean rating for the should item was higher than for the do item. Interactions between respondent group and should versus do factor were present for 4 of the issues.

### Discussion

The comparatively low response rate for the Student Teacher group raises the possibility of a degree of self selection in that portion of the sample. Accordingly, the results for that group should be treated with some caution. In general terms, it seems that the Scheme meets with the approval of the majority of those involved. This was apparent both from the mean effectiveness rating and from respondents' comments. Bush (1987) recommends that as well as practice in teaching skills, student teachers need extensive feedback and follow-up coaching to help their training transfer to classroom practice. The Tutor Supervisor scheme's aims accord with such recommendations. The continuous presence of the Tutor Supervisor in the practice school provides on-going formative evaluation additional to that from the Cooperating Teacher. However, the effectiveness of such supervision relies heavily on the overall quality of the team effort involved. Price (1987) observed a potential for conflict within such a team for reasons such as the team members' differing views about the nature of the educational process and its consequences for classroom teaching. Although some aspects of relationships between those involved in the Scheme appear to require further consideration, these do not seem to cause major problems. It may well be that the directness of interactions resulting from the participants working so closely together tends to prevent such problems from building up. The opportunity for potential conflicts to be quickly defused because of the Tutor Supervisor's continuous presence may explain why working relationships were generally given a high rating. The fact that all respondent groups rated highly the importance of maintaining the continuous presence of the Tutor Supervisor within the school tends to reinforce such an interpretation.

Taken in isolation, the clear disparity across all groups in the perceptions of what should happen and what does happen may appear to be a matter for some concern. Perhaps the Tutor Supervisors are seen as not in fact delivering the benefits that they were placed in schools to provide. However, an examination of comments relevant to Tutor Supervisors' activities within practice schools suggests that they function very effectively considering the diverse roles they must fulfil and the number of people (Student Teachers and School Staff) they must service. It seems that it is not that the Scheme fails to provide what is seen as important by those involved, but rather that even more of what it does provide would be welcomed. For example, it is inevitable that rationing of the amount of feedback and counselling that can be given to each of the Student Teachers will occur. Many of the discrepancies between what respondents thought should be done and what they thought actually did happen may be attributed to such rationing. Although the individual attention given to Student Teachers must by virtue of the nature of the Scheme be far greater than they would ever receive under the 'flying visit' type of alternative, there is clearly a strong desire for even more intensive supervision. As one Student Teacher commented, "Wouldn't it be loverly [sic] to have a Tutor Supervisor all to yourself (but they do a great job anyway!). Such a comment seems to accord with the general impression of good working relationships between Tutor Supervisors and the Student Teachers. Furthermore, there is only a limited amount of time to talk to the Cooperating Teachers. Although the School Staff did not see this as a great problem and rated their relationships with Tutor Supervisors highly, there appears to be a general desire for increased communication between Cooperating Teachers and Tutor Supervisors on some issues. This may help to account for results such as the Student Teachers' tendency to report the working relationship between Cooperating Teacher and Tutor Supervisor as significantly less effective that was reported by the School Staffs. Another source of divergence of views was the Murdoch caravan. Although it seems generally to be highly valued by Student Teachers, it appears that the extent and manner of its use could be reviewed so it is seen as of maximum benefit by all concerned.

It appears that the Murdoch experiment with the Tutor Supervisor scheme has produced far more benefits than disadvantages, especially for the clients of the Scheme. The Student Teachers seem to want more of what the Scheme was set up to offer. Those problems they do perceive are often due to necessary constraints involved in running any form of supervision that involves more than one input to the advisory and assessment processes. School staff members generally find the Scheme both effective for the Student Teachers and comfortable for themselves, despite the clearly different relationships in which they are involved compared with more traditional forms of practice supervision.

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16.2

# IMPROVING TEACHER CLARITY THROUGH STRUCTURED FEEDBACK

Reviews such as those of Rosenshine and Furst (1971) and Gage (1984) have suggested that there is considerable agreement on the major components of teacher effectiveness. Rosenshine and Furst for example, suggest that the most significant indicators of teacher effectiveness are clarity, variability, enthusiasm, task orientation, and provision of opportunity for students to learn criterion material.

Early attempts to reach consensus on the factors contributing to teacher effectiveness were hampered by a number of problems. Berliner (1976) identified three major impediments to the study of teacher effectiveness: (a) instrumentation problems associated with both dependent and independent variables; (b) methodological problems: and, (c) statistical analysis problems. Research studies which attempt to investigate specific aspects of teacher effectiveness, such as that of Hines (1981), avoid some of the problems raised by Berliner but often lead to new difficulties. Perhaps the most serious of these problems is that the tight control of variables (often the prime justification for conducting research in experimental settings) places a consequent doubt on the applicability of the findings to natural classroom settings.

There is, therefore, a need for research into specific aspects of teacher effectiveness in natural classroom settings, and a need to investigate the extent to which results obtained in experimental settings are likely to be indicative of the outcomes in natural classrooms. The research reported here addressed the first of these issues; the second is part of a wider study still in progress.

The study reported here was concerned with teacher clarity, a term used to encompass those teaching behaviours which result in learner understanding, given that potential learners have adequate interest, aptitude, opportunity and time. It extends a line of research centered on Ohio State University (see for example Bush et al, 1977, and Williams, 1983).

Teacher clarity can be investigated from basically two perspectives: firstly, from that of an impartial observer who can quantify teacher behaviours according to predetermined categories of clear and unclear behaviours; secondly, from the point of view of the learners who can judge the teacher according to their level of understanding. It can be argued that the students' viewpoint is the more important one since their perception of the teacher's clarity is more likely to influence their reactions to the lesson than the actual teacher behaviours which led to that perception of clarity. This view has led to studies such as that of Hines (1981) in which students' perceptions of teacher clarity were found to have a significant mediating effect on student achievement and a moderate effect on satisfaction with the lesson.

Assuming that teacher clarity can be quantified, it then seems reasonable to investigate whether or not in can be improved. The present study tested the hypothesis that the clarity behaviours of teachers in natural classroom settings could be modified by the provision of structured feedback based on an analysis of the learners' perceptions of the teacher's performance.

## METHODOLOGY

A questionnaire was used to gather data on learner perceptions of teacher clarity in natural classroom settings. The questionnaire was based on work by Hines (1981) and its development and validation is reported in Killen (1988). Basically, the questionnaire involved learners rating their teachers on twenty-six low inference clarity behaviours (such as "Presenting the lesson in a logical series of steps" and "Explaining what new words meant").

The responses to the questionnaire were analysed by a technique which grouped the twenty-six questions into five Dimensions of Clarity and produced an average rating for each Dimension and an overall clarity rating. The Dimensions resulted from a factor analysis of responses to a pilot study (see Killen, 1988) and for convenience were labelled Presentational Style, Helping Individual Students, Lesson Structure and Organisation, Assisting Students to Assimilate New Information, and Explaining New Concepts.

The study involved 48 teachers (24 males and 24 females) from TAFE Colleges in NSW, 27 (14M, 13F) in the experimental group and 21 (10M, 11F) in the control group. The teachers taught two similar lessons to the same class, approximately one month apart. At the conclusion of each lesson the students completed the questionnaire, rating the teacher on his or her performance on that lesson. The teachers also completed a questionnaire (a parallel form of the learner questionnaire) immediately after each lesson.

After each lesson, the teachers in the experimental group received feedback in the form of a detailed analysis of the ratings provided by the students for each Dimension of Clarity. They were also given suggestions to help them to modify their teaching procedures in order to improve their ratings on the Dimension for which they received the lowest rating. The feedback, including an analysis of the teacher's questionnaire, was presented in a graphical form which allowed easy comparison of the learner ratings and the teacher ratings. The teachers in the control group did not receive this feedback until after their second lesson.

## RESULTS

The following table summarises the comparison between the results obtained in the experimental and control groups.

| | EXPERIMENTAL | CONTROL |
|---|---|---|
| No. of teachers | 27 | 21 |
| No. achieving significant increase in total clarity rating | 5 | 0 |
| No. achieving significant increase on at least one dimension | 12 | 1 |
| No. achieving significant increase in lowest rated dimension | 10 | 1 |
| No. obtaining significant decrease in total clarity rating | 0 | 4 |
| No. obtaining significant decrease in at least one dimension | 4 | 13 |
| No. obtaining significant decrease in lowest rated dimension | 1 | 4 |

The significance of the changes in the ratings of individual teachers was determined using t-tests at the 0.01 level of significance. Additionally, a repeated measures analysis of variance indicated a significant difference between the changes in the ratings of the two groups from the first to the second lesson, with the feedback to the experimental group apparently resulting in the significant improvement in their ratings.

## CONCLUSIONS

There was a demonstrated tendency for the feedback to increase the clarity ratings of the experimental group, particularly on the Dimensions of Clarity which had individually been targeted for improvement. In the control group there were few significant changes in overall clarity from the first to the second lesson, although there were a considerable number of significant decreases on individual Dimensions. There are a number of possible explanations for these decreases, such as variations to the lesson content, and student uncertainty about the purpose of the questionnaire. Whatever the reasons for the variations, two considerations are important. Firstly, the overall clarity ratings were quite stable, a finding similar to that of Williams (1983). Secondly, the tendency for the ratings on individual dimensions to decrease on the second lesson was much more pronounced in the control group than in the experimental group.

There was, therefore, a demonstrated tendency for the feedback to differentially improve the ratings on the lowest rated dimension, and to help teachers maintain those ratings which were originally high. Of those teachers in the experimental group who achieved significant increases in clarity ratings on at least one Dimension, 85% significantly increased the rating on their lowest Dimension. The feedback therefore appeared to be enhancing desirable clarity performance across a broad spectrum of the sampled behaviours.

Considering the small amount of feedback which was provided to teachers in the experimental group, the results seem quite promising. There does appear to be a simple mechanism for changing what would otherwise be relatively stable clarity behaviours. Perhaps the greatest potential for the feedback technique lies in the fact that it can be relatively easily used by teachers without recourse to outside assistance. The author is continuing to refine the questionnaire and the feedback mechanisms as part of a study of the relationship between teacher clarity in experimental settings and teacher clarity in natural classrooms.

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# 16·3 INITIAL CLASSROOM ENCOUNTERS : IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHER EDUCATION.

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The impetus for the investigation that forms the basis of this paper was a proposal by Doyle (1979). He put forward an hypothesised model of the evolution of the rate of student violations of classroom rules throughout the school year. The pattern developed by Doyle is displayed in Figure 1.

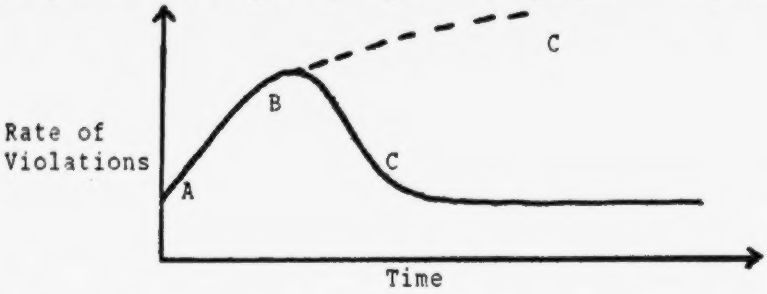

Figure 1 Patterns of violations in Doyle's model.

The meaning of the graph is as follows : there is an initial wary encounter between the teacher and the class (A). The latter then escalate the challenges to the rules (B) which the teacher successfully manages (C) or fails to manage (D). Success by the teacher brings about an equilibrium mean rate of student violations that persists through the remainder of the year. The equilibrium rate is non-zero, and there will be variations on a day-to-day basis about the mean rate.

In the study reported here the rate of student violations in two first year high school geography classes was monitored from the initial encounter until the middle of the semester.The patterns that were recorded are displayed in Figure 2.

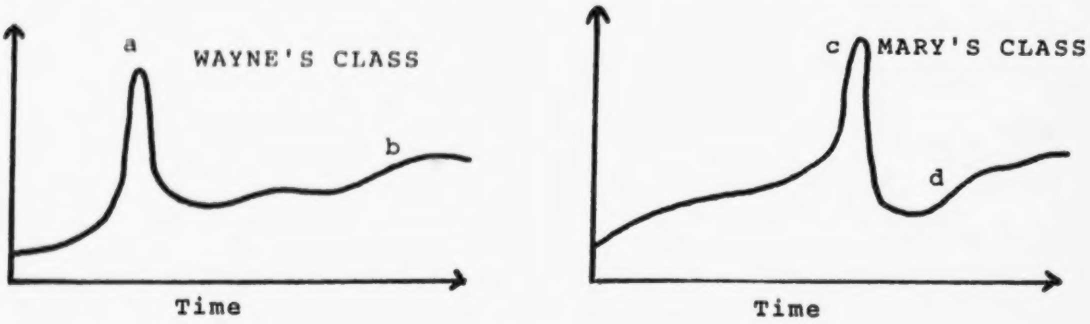

Figure 2. Pattern of violations in two case studies.

The purpose of this paper is to compare and contrast Doyle's hypothesised pattern with the actual patterns; to juxtapose Doyle's assumptions about teacher goals in the classroom with the reported teacher goals; and then to draw implications for teacher education programs.

The assumptions that Doyle makes about the social system of the classroom lead him inexorably to the pattern of student violations depicted in Figure 1. These assumptions are as follows :

* The social system in the classroom is characterised by the teacher's rules of conduct for the students; and by the teacher's enforcement system that responds to rule violations.

* The goal of the teacher in the classroom is student cooperation; that is, rule and task compliance by the student.

* The students relegate to teachers the responsibility for formulating and enforcing the rules. Students learn the rules by pressing against them; and by continually testing the strength of the enforcement system by attempting to circumvent the rules.

These assumptions conform to the theory and research on classroom management that concentrates mostly on how teachers can control student behaviour. This is understandable when the bureaucratic nature of schools is considered. The conceptual framework construes classroom interaction in terms of conflict and teacher domination, enforcing compliance from students who know what to do but tend not to do it on their own. Power and control is centralised at the apex of hierarchy of impersonal social relationships.

## The Findings of the Study

The pattern of observed violations for Wayne displays Doyle's pattern. There is an initial period of wariness and hesitancy for the first eight lessons in which the teacher implements a set of rules for students. The instructional content of the first unit of work is called the Self Unit which is a school innovation in response to the primary-secondary transition and delayed specialisation. During this period the teacher keeps tight control and engages students predominantly in whole class activities (WCA) with him leading strongly from the front of the room.

The first whole class violation (a) occurs on the eighth day. The teacher cannot explain the students' response but continues to enforce the previous rules for attention. With the introduction of a new curriculum unit, the teacher makes explicit his goal for the class, that of student achievement. Thereafter the class is tightly controlled according to the teacher's "code" and theory of attention. This theory includes the teacher's own agenda of goals related to his professional satisfaction, his desire to be an effective teacher and his strategy to maintain a social distance from students. The response is further student violations that fluctuate about a mean level with an overall increase (b) toward the middle of the semester (three months).

The teacher recognises that the nature of violations and student attention changes as the semester progresses. He acknowledges that the rate of violations is inextricably embedded in the selection and organisation of curriculum content. The pupils identify both his managerial skills and the power of his instructional explanations to the whole class.

In the study of Mary's classroom in the same school, there is a variation of implementation of the curriculum units. The first seven lessons focus on skills in geography; lessons eight through nineteen deal with the Self Unit. In the initial lessons, the teacher most often uses individualised settings (IA). There are two reasons for her choice: to establish personal social relationships with individual students especially those who are labelled as more "deviant"; and to monitor student work and give individualised instruction.

The pattern of student violations in this classroom partly reflects Doyle's hypothesised curve. The mean rate of violations increases as the students learn that they are permitted to interact in dyads during IA. Lesson 13 (c) marks the "break-out" by the students in response to a bird entering the classroom. The teacher changes to an authoritarian role; she uses institutional resources to reduce student violations; she changes the setting to WCA and insists on compliance with rules she has introduced in the earlier lessons. In lesson 16 (d), the teacher assumes a stable pattern has returned to the classroom; she reverts to IA and the mean levels of student violations increase until the end of the observation period.

The principal goal of the teacher (except in lessons 13-15) is to reduce the number of violations by establishing personal social relationships with students. Her intentions are undermined not only by the exercise of inadequate management skills but by the discontinuities she creates relating to selection and sequencing of curriculum content; to her pedagogy; and to her failure to interact with consistency according to the kind of social relationships she intends to establish.

While both studies mirror inexactly the pattern of student violations proposed in Figure 1, the findings indicate that the assumptions the teachers made can be extended beyond what Doyle proposes. The teacher as manager of a rule enforcement system appears to be a restricted conceptualisation of what actually occurs in initial encounters. Teachers in the case studies acted both as managers and instructors and saw that instruction is a form of management. Their agenda which included their own theories of student attention was embedded in a form of bureaucratic rationality but it distorted the implementation of the kind of enforcement system Doyle assumed operates at the beginning of the year.

Hence, the teachers' goals were more complex, diverse and extensive than Doyle's model allows. Their goals were political (for example, in enforcing rules as Doyle suggests); they were cultural-social as witnessed in the teachers' desire to maintain social distance or social proximity; and they were structural-institutional, for example, in the way the teachers' agendas were "framed" by centrally devised curricula and by the way the same teachers distorted that curricula to achieve their goals. Management is not simply a medium for reduction of student violations; the frequency and intensity of violations is embedded in the way the teachers organise the curriculum and their pedagogy.

Teachers may often act in a bureaucratic mode consistent with Doyle's management model but they also recognise in unbureaucratic ways the character of the social life of the classroom.

## Implications for Teacher Education Programs

There are a number of implications of the above findings for teacher education generally and for initial teacher education programs that depend heavily on curriculum materials for the induction of beginning and student teachers. First, initial encounters are a very special period of the school year not simply because the teacher must gain control, as Doyle's conceptualisation asserts; but because it is the first time that pupil and teacher interests need to be resolved. Second, the actions of both teacher and pupils are the expression of their goals that are complex, diverse and extensive. Third, there is a need to acknowledge the curriculum context of initial encounters. Fourth, a management context is an appropriate focus for the study of student violations but it is a support structure for the curriculum of initial encounters. For too long, classroom research with a management focus has studied classrooms as if they were curriculum content free. Fifth, teacher education programs must recognise the possibility of changing nature of student violations or attention as the semester progresses. A broader conception of student violation or attention seems appropriate. Finally, programs might recognise the phases of violation escalation as Doyle suggests and as the case studies affirm. These phases cannot be clinically defined.

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16.4

# PRACTICE TEACHING in a RURAL LOCATION and WILLINGNESS to TEACH in INLAND SCHOOLS

The trial that is the subject of this paper grew out of findings from a study of graduating teachers and their attitudes to rural appointments as reported in Watson, et al, 1986. A sample of over 800 final year teacher education students in primary and secondary programmes in distinctly contrasted rural and urban locations was surveyed during October and November of 1985. Among the key findings of the research study were that those intending to teach had relatively high levels of commitment to teaching, a preference for full-time work, quite accurate perceptions of their chances for employment and a high degree of reluctance to accept appointments away from locations with which they were familiar. The further from the coast, the greater the reluctance. Many of the secondary students, predominantly urban dwellers for most of their lives, saw country locations as isolated, threatening and unfamiliar, but coastal locations as pleasant and favourable. They did not feel ill-prepared for country teaching, nor did they have negative views of country children, though they did profess ignorance about specifics of country living and conditions of employment.

When students in the study were grouped according to whether they had grown up in a rural location, gone to an inland school or college, or even just had done one session of practice teaching in the country, then that part of the sample who had experienced any kind of rural living were twice as prepared as the remainder who had not, to accept an appointment to the West, North West or Riverina. So the message was clear. Provision of a rural practicum for urban based student teachers should help to increase the pool of those willing to accept country, especially inland, appointments. The way to overcome the stereotypes is to provide, along with appropriate information, relevant first hand experience.

In line with the principles espoused in Turney, etal, The Practicum Curriculum (1986) a course unit was designed which included directly related coursework and practical components. Two sessions were devoted to exploring students' perceptions of country teaching and any characteristics of country children that might be relevant to their learning. The next two sessions tried to come to grips with living and teaching in a country town using simulations and a slide/tape presentation. Further sessions developed a case study of the N.S.W. Western Region, with support from a staffing inspector from the region and the video film "Teaching in the West". A final session was concerned with specific preparations for individual placements and what was to be taught during the practicum. The specialized practicum, designed to provide first hand experience of country living and teaching, then followed. Students were placed in Western Region schools at Bourke, Cobar and Nyngan. A minimum of two students were allocated to any one school so that students could provide some support for each other and could discuss their experiences amongst themselves as well as with school staff. Each of the co-operating schools is within the Western Region's Country Areas Program and C.A.P. was able to provide some funding to subsidise students' travel and accommodation costs.

To evaluate the trial use was made of the survey instrument developed by Watson, et al, for the 1985 study. Eighteen students were surveyed, ten who did the course work only and eight who completed both the course work and the specialized practicum. The survey instrument was used three times - at the beginning of the course, at the completion of the first five sessions and, for those who did the rural practicum, at the end of their practice period.

At the beginning of the course these students revealed perceptions about teaching that were very similar to those of secondary students in the 1985 sample. Many reported that they would refuse appointments to locations in inland areas. In rank order, the locations most often 'refused' were Western, North-Western, Riverina, Mid-West and Northern Tablelands. Wollongong and Newcastle were refused by nearly half, while Metropolitan West and South West were unacceptable to a third. Their reasons for preferences and refusals were again similar to those given in the earlier study. Familiarity/Proximity were cited by seven, and Environment/Climate by four. Limiting factors mentioned also included Commitments/Dependants and Change of Lifestyle. On the positive side, one would have accepted rural appointments to experience new people and environments. On the negative side, reservations were expressed about racial tension and acceptance by close knit rural communities.

Their knowledge of the support available for country teachers was poor. Like students in the earlier study, their main sources of information about country living and teaching had been friends and relatives who had been teachers or were currently in the service.

From the surveys completed after the first five sessions, it was clear that all students had gained a great deal of information about these matters from the Rural Locations course. By the end, most rated themselves as adequately informed, rather than poorly or not at all. For individuals, there were changes to a more realistic assessment of the degree of privacy for teachers, and the nature and the extent of discipline problems. The degree of pupil self-reliance, parental interest, departmental support and school resources were more positively perceived. Some revised upwards their ratings of community acceptance, or the level of cultural and recreational pursuits, recognizing that it is necessary to become involved as active participants.

The rural practicum itself effectively illustrated the power of a first hand experience in providing a knowledge base, changing perceptions and overcoming stereotypes. Students' evaluations of the total experience confirm the main recommendations made in Watson, et al, (1986 and 1987). There it was proposed that what was needed was more information (including promotional material) and better links with Departmental personnel, practice teaching in rural schools, and additional incentives for country service. Clearly, for the students in this trial, the course Teaching in Rural Locations and the subsequent rural practicum did help by providing factual information and first hand accounts of country living and teaching which helped to dispel for urban dwellers some of the major negative stereotypes, while bringing a degree of reality to certain positive myths.

It is safe to conclude that the kind of course and practicum described in this article can help to increase the pool of intending teachers who might consider a country appointment, at very little cost relevant to the potential outcome.

Table - POSITION REGARDING A RURAL APPOINTMENT IN 1988

| School | Person | Summary of Views on Possible Country Location |
|---|---|---|
| BOURKE | AFR | Very positive about isolated schools, including hot climate - appreciates teachers, pupils and their problems - would accept. |
| | MMA | Positive about experience - wary of personal repercussions when relating to pupils with difficulties - family and sport commitments in the city - would not accept. |
| | HMW | Fairly positive, though some reservations - wants a rural appointment, prefers the south coast, but would accept anywhere in the State. |
| | MMG | Extremely positive about the experience, and the response of pupils to his personal style - keen for a rural appointment - would accept. |
| COBAR | WMG | Fairly positive, with reservations about limits of social and professional contact - would accept rural, but probably not isolated or hot climate location. |
| | HMR | Positive about the experience, but with reservations about isolation - engaged to a person still studying, so must be in Sydney - would accept rural appointment later, but not isolated or hot climate location. |
| NYNGAN | MFV | Very positive about the experience, which has confirmed her intention to pursue teaching as a career, especially in a small country school - would accept rural, but not isolated or hot climate location. |
| | RFJ | Committed to teaching in a rural location, and would refuse a city school - very positive about country living and teaching - would accept only a rural appointment. |

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16.b

# THE INFLUENCE OF TEACHER BELIEFS ON THEIR EDUCATIONAL DECISION-MAKING:

## A REPORT ON ONGOING RESEARCH

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## Rationale

During the last 25 years classroom research has produced a plethora of descriptive information on both the characteristics of good teachers and of teaching (1). Some intriguing observations have been made. Berliner, for instance, observed that teachers, like air-traffic controllers must attend to a number of things simultaneously (2). So much information has been collected that it is reasonably easy to put together a description of an 'ideal teacher' based on these findings. By comparison relatively little is known about the principles, beliefs and theories by which 'ideal teachers' operate (3). This places teacher educators in something of a dilemma. They can pass on to their students knowledge of what good teachers do in the classroom but, until now, they can only make, at best, tenuous assumptions about the theory that underpins those exemplars of 'good teaching'. Students see examples of good teaching and learn theories of education but the teachers providing examples of good teaching have not been asked to declare the principles upon which their practice is based. Thus theory and practice remain separate. The purpose of this study is to explain the ways in which teachers' value and belief systems influence their educational and classroom decision-making.

## Method of Selection of Participants

The first problem to be solved by the team was the identification of a sample of 'good teachers'. If fellow teachers, lecturers, principals or inspectors were asked to nominate outstanding teachers they would do so based on their own highly subjective concept of what such a teacher would be like. The quiet achiever might be overlooked in favour of a gregarious colleague. Noise emanating from the classroom of an innovator might lead a casual observer to believe no useful work was taking place therein (4). To overcome the problem, the team developed a pen-picture of participant teachers based on characteristics described in the literature (1). Principals were to be asked to nominate one or more teachers in their school who came as close as possible to this description. In most cases the recommendations of teachers by colleagues were double checked in this manner. Although the characteristics of participant teachers were to be similar, the subjects taught, socio-economic environment of the school and students involved were to be as wide-ranging as possible so that a representative sample of teachers could be studied. At the time of writing three teachers have been identified and interviewed in a pilot study.

## Interview Procedures

It was essential for the success of the project that interviews reveal a rich map of beliefs, theories and principles which formed the basis for each teacher's approach to teaching. Although it was considered important that the teachers be allowed freedom to pursue lines of argument that interested them, it was also felt that some guidance was required in the areas that should be covered. A structure that met this requirement was one devised by Elbaz (5). She has identified five types of teacher-thinking in terms of practical knowledge: thinking about curriculum, subject matter, instruction, society and self. A set of starter questions were thus devised that fitted into these five categories. This 'Teacher Knowledge Sheet' was left with the teacher at an initial meeting for the teacher to select a topic for discussion at the next meeting. Two or three interviews each of approximately one hour were then conducted with the teacher. These were recorded and transcribed. From these, propositional statements about the teacher's belief system were extracted and referred to the teacher for confirmation.

## Products of the Research

Two major products are planned. The first consists of a set of case studies describing the belief systems of the participant teachers. The second is a set of commercial quality videotapes of interviews with teachers and of those teachers in action in the classroom. In order that a 'screenplay' for the tapes can be developed teachers will be asked to arrange for a taping of lessons that illustrate the main characteristics of their approaches to teaching. These preliminary tapes will be combined with the findings from the case studies to develop the 'screenplay'.

## Preliminary Findings

Interviews in the pilot study were completed at the end of March 1988. Propositional statements elicited from these interviews help explain the way these teachers operate in their classrooms. Kate, for instance, has developed an approach that has as a central concern selection of appropriate conditions for student learning.

Three propositions illustrate this approach:

- Students are people who have the right to control some of the direction and content of their education

- Learning is enhanced in a class that has a group identity; a group that enjoys working with each other and with the teacher.

- Feedback from testing should help students recognise their own strengths and weaknesses and provide help for improvement.

At the SPATE 88 conference the research team plan to present more comprehensive findings from the study and show excerpts of videotapes of these teachers in action. Materials developed in the study such as the pen-picture of teachers and question categories used in interviews will also be made available.

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19.1

# REFLECTIVE LEARNING AND TEACHING - THE PHILLIP INSTITUTE EXPERIENCE

Starting in 1989, Reflective Learning and Teaching will become a component in a revised and restructured B.Ed program for primary teachers. Following the phase in period it will be taken by all students for two hours per week across the three years of the course. There may also be a fourth year component, the precise outline of which is not yet clear. When fully operational five students from each year of the course will meet with a staff tutor or advisor to take part in a range of structured and negotiated experiences which will hopefully give rise to forms of reflection.

The draft rationale for the program states:

In close association with the Practicum, the Reflective Teaching and Learning component of the course ought to enable a deliberate examination of the nature of the knowledge, skills, values and disposition to act characteristic of teaching and learning as experienced in the B.Ed program and of the practices of teachers in a range of educational and institutional settings.

Reflective processes in a supportive and sharing environment will deliberately seek to render problematic the 'taken-for-granted' or habituated within current practices as well as emergent or innovative practices that may present possibilities for meaningful action.

Reflective Learning and Teaching will also allow participants to reflect upon both college and school based course experiences and learning across the three years of the B.Ed program and to negotiate programs suited to individual needs of beginning teachers engaged in regular Practicum experiences across a range of educational contexts.

Competence developed in these programs should aim to enable graduates to expand personal and social awareness and to enter teaching as confident and articulate individuals with clear perceptions of how they may function as members of the teaching profession.

Finally, all programs need to be located in a broader socio-cultural context which critically examines the role of schooling in society leading toward a more socially critical reflective practice.

In practice it is anticipated that RL & T groups of staff and students will engage a range of experiences as negotiated by the group according to need and ability to implement. These may include, course orientation and monitoring activities, selected readings upon critical issues, performances, displays, exhibitions, peer teaching, social action projects of various kinds, tours, camps, visits, action research projects or clinical supervision cycles.

Assessment in this component of the course should be descriptive rather than competitive and be incorporated into the Professional Readiness Report.

Students who do not fulfill structured or negotiated tasks as required may of course be deemed to fail, but as a general rule no student should fail unexpectedly and such failure would be a joint and usually conditional decision.

Assessment should not be private or arbitrary and where possible students should be encouraged to take responsibility for negotiating and certainly monitoring their own assessment.

Possible tasks include:

Portfolio of works; journal, references, testimonials.
Annotated bibliography.
Course appraisal profiles and responses.
Oral summation statements and semester reviews.
Practicum report analyses.
Analyses of laboratory, peer or "Reflective Teaching" (Cruickshank 1981).

## CHARACTERISATION OF STAFF ROLE

Staff/student relationships in this component of the course may best be related to that of the supervisor of a post graduate thesis who provides intellectual and academic, as well as personal support to the student.

At times the staff member will be "judgemental" ("No you are not ready to submit. Chapter 4 needs redrafting.")

At all times however, the staff member should both support and challenge the student as he/she progresses through the course.

The staff member should also monitor the new course for failings or contradictions and is responsible for bringing these to the attention of the Course Director.

Staff will support the completion of "structured tasks" in RLT and negotiate and support supplementary "negotiated tasks" based on student need as agreed upon in group or individual meetings with students.

Staff tutors will also be responsible for monitoring and assessing the student file or portfolio at regular intervals through the course. It is hoped also that staff and students might meet occasionally at the Turkish restaurant for a chat.

## THE CONCEPT OF REFLECTION: WHAT IS 'IT'?

Reflection, and hence Reflective Learning and Teaching, will endeavour to allow a deliberate exploration of the nature of the knowlegdge, skills, values, attitudes and dispositions to act, characteristic of teaching and learning as experienced in the B.Ed program and the practice that it informs or misinforms in our schools.

It will deliberately seek to render problematic the "taken-for-grantedness" of what we do at Phillip Institute, what happens in schools, in other learning contexts, and in the broader society.

Smythe describes Reflection as,

> "a form of inquiry in which practitioners might problematise or bring into question the taken for grantedness of what they do." (p.5)

Drawing further on Smythe, Kemmis and others it becomes a process in which,

> "actions are examined for meaningfulness,"

when attempts are made to articulate previously changed practice, and to penetrate the social and political meanings and consequences of what teachers typically do in schools.

Early in the planning for the new B.Ed course Richard Bawden briefed the faculty on the Hawkesbury Experience. In subsequent discussions concepts such as "holistic", "integrated", "learner centred", "experiential", "connected" were identified as principles that would, as far as possible, underpin the course.

Further research into such writers as Dewey (1910), Boud (1985), Kolb (1984), Johnson and Johnson (1987), Smythe (1986), Habermas (1968), de Chardin (1955) and Capra (1982) has convinced some of us at least of the theoretical and epistemological support for "Reflection" as a concept worthy of emphasis in a teacher training program and one that may stand equally alongside more widely accepted labels as "Liberal Study" "Method" "Foundation Study" or "Practicum". Indeed Reflection may well be the process that binds together and makes sense of the total course offerings.

In this way we hope to turn "experience into learning" in a meaningful way in our program.

## CONCLUSION

Zeichner (1987) has noted that attempts to prepare reflective teachers have a long and varied history in teacher education. Most agree however "that some form of reflectiveness needs to be engendered during pre-service training if we can reasonably expect teachers to display the qualities of reflective teaching during their in-service years" (p.566).

Ideally however, changes of this kind need to go beyond modifications to isolated course units or components.

In the long term it remains to be seen whether reflective predispositions will carry over to other areas of the B.Ed program to create an environment supportive of reflective activity across all areas and all years of the course. If this can be achieved, then Reflective Learning and Teaching may well be removed as a discrete component of the program.

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# 19.3 BUILDING BRIDGES - BEGINNING STUDENT TEACHER REFLECTIONS ON THE PRACTICUM

**J. Baker, E. Burman, M. Jones and M. Robson**

## INTRODUCTION

In recent years there has been increasing interest in the process by which student teachers learn to teach, and the role of the practicum in facilitating this process (Dickie,1983, Tisher,1987, Turney and Eltis,1986, Zeichner,1986).

In 1987 a longitudinal research project was initiated in Australia and in England which seeks to explore the development of professional knowledge in student teachers during their pre-service program.

An earlier paper (Robson et al.,1987), presented Australian students' views about teaching and learning at the beginning of their course. This paper examines the students' perceptions of the importance of both the College course and the practicum to their growth as teachers, using data from both countries.

## THE STUDY.

### SAMPLE.

At the beginning of 1987, twenty, first year entry students were randomly selected to take part in the study. They were interviewed initially during orientation week and then immediately after each practicum experience. Each interview lasted approximately forty minutes with a structured interview format being used. A similar program commenced in England in September with a sample of nine students. A series of five interviews were conducted and, although there are differences in the structure of the programs in each country, the similarity in findings suggested that it was appropriate to report the findings together.

### INTERVIEWS

The initial interview aimed at identifying the students' perceptions of themselves as teachers and their understanding of classroom management. The subsequent interviews explored the changes that occurred in these areas as the students progressed through their first year in College. An aspect of the study which is highlighted in this paper was the investigation of the individual effect that the College based methodology course and the practicum had on facilitating these changes.

## FINDINGS.

### Student Perceptions of the College-based Methodology Course.

The results from interviews suggest that students in both samples perceived effective teaching to comprise the execution of a set of skills which are learnt principally through imitation in the school setting. Where the college program focussed on skills such as lesson planning or provided specific teaching ideas or strategies (e.g. classroom management), student reaction was positive.

> "... this helped my lesson planning..." and "... it was helpful when lectures and tuts talked about classroom management".

On the other hand, lectures or seminars which focussed on the theoretical underpinnings of teaching and learning processes were considered to be irrelevant to the classroom setting by some :

> "... I only learnt 10% about teaching in college",
> "the course is too theoretical..." and "basically it's your own experience and you can't look it up in a book."

The predominantly negative reaction seems to indicate that students are unable to make the links between theory and practice commonly expected of them at this stage in their development and that their expectations are predominantly teaching skill-related.

For example, students in the English sample had difficulty recalling anything of significance arising out of the college program even where tutorials involved the exchange of experiences gained in schools earlier that day.

> "...we just tend to talk about our children and we don't feel we're learning anything about teaching."

Whilst they had difficulty pinpointing memorable aspects of the college program, students had little difficulty recalling quite specific events occurring in the practicum.

## Students Perceptions of the Practicum.

The findings of this study would reinforce those of Dickie (1983), Turney and Eltis (1986), Zeichner (1986) and Tisher (1987),that the practicum has a very definite impact on the growth of the students perceptions of themselves as teachers.

Most students saw the practicum as the 'real world', divorced from the college program. Practicum experiences were perceived to be

> "a lot more helpful than lectures" because ... "it's being there..." and "it gives us a bit more feeling of what we're going to be doing" and "it helps us get use to children...".

Students felt that they learnt most from classroom experience by modelling and imitation.

"Everything I learnt about teaching was in the classroom...", I learnt by doing" and "this (the classroom) is where it's at...".

However, it must be emphasised that no student mentioned any pre- or post-lesson discussion with their teachers regarding the teacher's own lessons. Consequently, the students seemed to only guess at what teaching and management strategies were being used, why they were being used and the effect they were having on the children. This appeared to encourage direct adoption of teaching models without any critical thinking or reflection. The danger inherent in this type of modelling without the accompanying discussion and critical thinking is that it tends to foster the idea of formulus for dealing with certain situations within the classroom rather than a problem solving orientation.

## Students Suggestions for Linking the Theory with the Practice.

Throughout the Australian interviews students stressed the need to link the theory taught in the methodology course in College with their practicum experiences.

"The course should tie more closely to teaching rounds - it often seemed abstract."

They felt this could be accomplished through a redefining of the course content and the adoption of a more variety in teaching methods used by the College lecturing staff.

With respect to the content, they stressed the need for practicum tasks to flow out of the theory taught before their teaching rounds and to flow back into the theory to be taught after their return to College. Along with this, they suggested that the course should address some of their concerns, in particular management strategies within their lessons, especially discipline strategies; observational techniques so that they could analyse and make sense of what they saw; and basic skills such as chalkboard, use of voice, and preparation of worksheet activities.

Referring to teaching methods, students emphasised that there should be more discussion, particularly relating to their practicum experiences and greater use made of the on-campus Teaching Skills laboratory.

A further interesting finding to emerge from the study was the growing student awareness of the value of critical reflection in developing their understanding of themselves as teachers. They suggested that the structured interviews which had been part of the study, had encouraged them to reflect on their own practice.

> "I knew I was coming to this interview so I paid more attention to what was happening in the classroom."
>
> "Made me think about my experience and sort out my ideas."

They indicated that similar interviews would benefit all students to enhance their thinking and reflective strategies, and felt that the course should include, after each practicum, a structured interview, with 3 or 4 students at a time.

In conclusion, whilst student concerns appear to be skill rather than process-oriented, there is also evidence to suggest that they are aware of the need for critical reflection on their work in the classrooms. They felt this could be accomplished through a greater linking of the practicum to the methodology course taught within the College.

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* The English study was conducted with Dr James Calderhead, University of Lancaster.

# 19.4 GUIDING PRINCIPLES IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF A TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAM

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This paper reports on the re-development of the B.Ed. program (Primary and Early Childhood) as part of a re-accreditation process. The course was first accredited in 1971, and that pattern had been followed for 14 years with only minor modifications. In 1985 a radical re-structuring commenced. While some changes were made to the content of the program, the major focus was on changing the structure of the content.

There is a very limited literature on the process of decision making in curriculum development of teacher education programs (Short, 1987). While we do not here provide an extensive analysis of the deliberation process or of the complex political processes involved, we do examine the functions of a set of principles which were to guide the design process. It is contended that the identification of the principles at an early stage of deliberations, their high visibility, and their continuing influence were critical factors in changing the design.

## Historical Context of the Changes

The historical context of the program in the School had some features which were to be particularly significant for the course development.

- In the establishment of the School, teaching staff had been employed either as Curriculum Studies or Education Studies specialists. The original B.Ed. included a Curriculum major and an Education major, both of which involved some sequential development of content. While many staff taught across these Curriculum/Education divisions, they tended to identify and to teach along one or other of these.
- Practice teaching was associated with the Curriculum components.
- The In-service students' programs basically consisted of parts of the pre-service course.
- The previous re-accreditation had attempted to develop more coherence in the program. In spite of a lengthy review process, there was a general view that the process had failed to produce significant change.

## The Emergence of Guiding Principles and a New Structure

In June, 1985, a committee of eight persons to re-accredit the degree program was established and chosen from across the School (and included the Head of School and the author as Chairperson). The Committee received written submissions concerning the program from almost half the teaching staff, and from students based on an extensive survey of student views; oral submissions from Primary principals, and results of a survey of teachers' perceptions of their in-service needs.

With these inputs the Comittee began an intensive two-day conference. At the end of that time it was clear that major change to the existing program was in the wind. Although there was no general agreement on a new structure or new content, there was affirmation of a number of principles on which the structure and content would be based. These principles were not spelled out in detail, and some were more explicit than were others. The possibility that some of these principles conflicted with one another was not examined at this time. The principles had emerged from a mix of beliefs, theories, values, and assumptions influenced by Committee members' own positions and by the submissions. The committee was clearly still at the platform stage of curriculum development (Walker, 1975, p107).

It is important to note that there was relatively little discussion of course aims and objectives during this period: the Committee was tacitly accepting those which had existed since the course had commenced. The Committee's focus of concern was on a curriculum structure which was considered to hinder the achievement of the aims. The major task was to change that organisation of content in order for students to have a more effective experience of professional socialisation.

As the development of the course continued the initial set of principles were tested through debate with staff, but none of them were set aside. Rather they became more refined in document statements. Some of the principles became regarded as more important than others, therefore receiving more attention and support from Commmittee and staff.

Immediately following the two day confèrence, the Committee considered alternative structures for organising the content of the course. For instance, instead of a collection of semester units taught by individual lecturers, each of the four years might be a year long integrated program taught by a small team of lecturers. As such alternatives were weighed, frequent reference was made to the agreed principles which provided direction to a complex and at times confusing process. By reference to these principles and to the constraints imposed by institutional resources, various proposals were eliminated.

Within seven weeks the Committee tabled a draft report making recommendations for significant changes to the structure of the program and included the principles which had guided the Committee's work.

## The Guiding Principles and the New Structure

The guiding principles briefly stated were:
i. the program should be structured in ways which provide students with coherent and integrated learning experiences;
ii. the course should recognise the complexity of the process of socialisation of the student-teacher both in the sequencing of the curriculum and in the opportunities for students to participate in their own learning;
iii. field experience should be recognised as a critical component of all elements of the course;
iv. pre-service students should be enabled to develop some specialist professional expertise in their program;
v. graduates should be enabled to be registered and employed in all Australian states and territories;
vi. experienced teachers should be encouraged to take increased responsibility for negotiating their programs.
There was nothing particularly novel in such principles; indeed such ideas had been part of the underlying, but sometimes unstated, assumptions of our course. What was new was the way that these principles of structure were explicitly related to the basic aim of the course: the proposal stated that "the course had been structured to facilitate the development of skills in professional decision-making based on an integrated theoretical rationale".

The most significant aspect of the new structure was a greater unity and coherence in the four year program. The structure constituted an attempt to break down divisions and barriers in the organisation of knowledge. The terms " Education Studies" and "Curriculum Studies" were to be abolished. Each semester was to have a conceptual focus, and components of each semester had been selected so that links could be forged among them. There had been some tightening in the offering of units to attain this integration, and students as a cohort would progress through the first three years of the program in strict sequence. Practice Teaching was to be renamed Field Experience, in recognition of the view that there was far more to the practicum than face-to-face teaching. Each semester's field experience was to be carefully planned by the semester team (consisting of "Education" and "Curriculum" lecturers), but was also to be sequentially developed over the whole program. Semester Five was to be a totally school-based semester which would enable students to have a rich and varied professional learning experience.

The proposed structure of programs for in-service teachers reflected the principle that they should be given more responsibility for shaping their course. With relatively few constraints, teachers were now able to focus a program in terms of their professional and career needs and interests, select a coherent set of units from any available in the College, and negotiate that choice with teaching staff.

## The Functions of the Guiding Principles

The guiding principles had three major functions during the process of design: a) justifying the changes; b) promoting and maintaining coherence in the curriculum design; and, c) resolving design dilemmas.

### a. Justification of the Changes

It has been noted that the Committee did not examine in any detail in its early deliberations the aims and objectives of the existing course. Nor did we present any detailed discussion of aims in the initial proposal for change. The Committee had adopted Sockett's (1976, p.125) position that there is no need to "feel guilty" about such a structural approach to curriculum planning. Indeed, the focus on structure and its associated principles undoubtedly averted a prolonged debate whose outcome would not have necessarily significantly helped the design process (a situation that had occurred in the previous accreditation). The limited number of succinctly stated principles were universally accepted, and were seen to underpin the new structure which received widespread, strong support. In that integration had been the dominant principle in the proposals, our experience of gaining legitimacy for the changes lends support to Short's (1987,pp8-10) argument for the "immense importance" of identifying a unifying concept or theme in order to convey quickly the central character of a program.

### b. Promoting and Maintaining Coherence in the Curriculum Design

Following some revision to the draft general proposal, as a result of feedback from staff, students and other interested parties, detailed development of the curriculum components began. Consistent with the general structure, semester and year planning teams were set up. This allowed us to draw on expertise across staff and encouraged ownership of the new curriculum. Each planning team was provided with a brief statement of guiding principles and a short glossary of terms embedded in these principles (eg. integration, field experience). A checklist structured around these concepts was to be used by the team to evaluate the extent to which the semester's program exhibited the key principles of structure, and the completed checklist was submitted to the Committee with the first draft of the units for the semester. Critical feedback to the teams for revisions made reference to the guiding principles. By such a procedure the Commmittee maintained the thrust of the proposals in a process that involved a large number of staff, some of whom were not fully committed to the new approaches.

### c. Resolving Design Dilemmas and Conflicts

During the design phase, the Committee confronted many dilemmas in its deliberations, often the result of conflict among the principles. For instance, the attempt to develop coherence in the program conflicted with the goal to allow students a significant participation in their own learning. The ability to perceive such conflicts in terms of principles assisted in their resolution. In such cases of conflict the Committee had to justify why one principle should have greater influence on the decision. The conflict also prompted a systematic exploration of possible modifications to the structure to embody the principle that had not been given priority.

A second significant way in which the guiding principles assisted in resolving conflict was through their generative character. While principles suggested limits to the decisions open to staff, the Committee was careful to leave significant room for interpretation by teams and individuals. The most important example of this was in the notion of integration of knowledge with its potential threat to the interests of those who claimed unit "territory". The glossary definition stated that the Committee recognised there are a number of ways in which integration can be achieved. While we would not promote one best way, we did state the minimal and least preferred mode of integration. As writing teams developed semester programs, this degree of flexibility in glossary definitions allowed teams to explore and resolve differences in viewpoint leading to agreement on their own approach to integration.

## Conclusion

Our experience of effecting major change to a degree program in teacher education underlines the value of the identification of a limited number of guiding principles that are a critical basis for evaluating alternative proposals, for resolving dilemmas in design, for maintaining the integrity of the overall framework, and for legitimating the changes.

However, the new structures are only enabling mechanisms. They do not guarantee that students' experiences will be as effective as they might be. That will depend on those who create and work within those structures. Continuing reference to the guiding principles will be necessary to maintain the integrity of the whole endeavour.

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19.5

# 'MULTICULTURAL STUDIES AS A COMPULSORY MAJOR IN TEACHER EDUCATION: an exercise in the dynamics of curriculum design'

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In 1984, preparations were made for commencing teacher education at the Footscray Institute of Technology. The Bachelor of Education program, for accreditation (and teacher registration) purposes, replicated the scope and sequence of programs on other campuses. There was a major deviation though. Beyond Language and Mathematics Curriculum Studies, no provision was made for subject specialisation in any of the eight standard areas of learning in the primary school curriculum. Instead, a compulsory stream in Multicultural Studies was incorporated. This stream was meant to address many of the emergent issues in education, particularly in the spheres of culture, gender and ethnicity.

This was an innovative step but it was cast at a time when major educational reports (e.g., Campbell 1984; Cahill 1984; Falk 1985) were advocating a radical reconceptualisation of multiculturalism and its relationship to mainstream schooling. As a result, Multiculturalism and Multicultural Studies were meant to be addressed as both explicit components of the B.Ed program and an implicit feature pervading all courses within the B.Ed program. A major conceptual and planning problem was inadvertently written into the program. It concerned matching curriculum intent with curriculum outcomes.

What occurred in practice can be briefly summarised. The degree program offered an approach to multiculturalism that stressed the need to see multicultural education as a distinct part of the curriculum. On the other hand, multiculturalism, the concept, was perceived as informing all curricula. rather than constituting an element of a curriculum. By the end of the first year of the course (Multicultural StudiesI), it was clear that the initiative had run into considerable difficulty owing to an hiatus between policy, concept and curriculum strategy.

Close examination of the four year sequence in Multicultural Studies confirmed that there was an inherent planning contradiction which reflected a change in the times rather than poor planning. Multiculturalism had been tied to multicultural education in all its divergent forms: 'culture and language', ESL, curriculum and culture, Bilingual Education, Community Language Programs and so on. These were explicit areas of curriculum concern. Yet the concept, was also meant to assist in explaining school and society in general. Concept, policy and the curriculum as a program and a strategy were fused without clear lines of demarcation.

Presented with this issue, it was determined to reconceptualise the approach to Multicultural Studies through making a number of shifts that would generate a viable curriculum process that would make sense to undergraduate students concerned to become competent and capable teachers. Rather than concentrate on Multiculturalism as an issue and strategy it was decided to approach the concept at its heart -the level of implementation- the curriculum.

If our task was to develop amongst our students the understandings and skills required to contribute to a coherent view of curriculum in a multicultural society, then in the present environment that view concerned perceiving the curriculum in the first instance as an artefact, in the second a technology, and if we did our job effectively, as a form of cultural action.

The peculiarity of preparing students to recognise the dynamics of the curriculum, its relationships, and the contradictions within a curriclum (explicit, 'hidden' or otherwise) is that the task by implication attempts to objectify curricula via the subjective experience of a curriculum. By definition alone, this is a matter of attempting to fuse polarities -it cannot be done.

Not even curriculum designers can overlook or ignore the contradiction that if the learning objective is to have students pursue the task of recognising curriclum relationships then that objective is being obfuscated by their experiencing a curriculum (the course). How then is the concept of curriculum to be presented to future practitioners of curriculum?

In view of the current emphases and trends in both the politics of education and the technology of curriculum pervading the rhetoric and intent of education in this country and in view of the learning preferences and styles of students (including their vocational aspirations) the course was cast in quite a different mould in 1987 and 1988. This re-casting saw the abandonment of 'equitable multiculturalism' and multicultural education with its marginalising of such concepts and techniques as ethnicity, culture, ESL and bilingual studies, and the adoption of a course concerned with identifying curricula as technology, its intent and outcome.

Commencing in 1987, the Multicultural Studies stream in the B.Ed program was (and still is) meant to provide a curriculum nexus for the entire B.Ed program. The nexus is tenuous if it is not explained so strategies and techniques for education in a multicultural society is what the course aims at providing. This approach is not what is currently being described as 'participation and equity' or 'equitable multiculturalis' as the course has steered away from the study of explicit ESL programs, community language programs and intercultural education.

The course now aims at providing equity in terms of access to education (ie., that the process of learning during the course is understood by the teachers and learners), the opportunity to maximise performance in education and realising perceived outcomes from education shared by teachers and learners. Superficially, this rhetoric appears to suggest the re-statement of familiar principles, strategies and concepts in a different guise.

This long and jargonistic setting is meant to provide a context for the roundtable presentation. What I would like to do in this session is mount a 'show and tell' and have critical friends go over the courses as they now stand. This will be a warts and all 'show and tell' in that I shall be inviting feedback, directions and any other responses. The courses are now in a trialling stage. There is plenty of scope for modification, and improvement for a course which in name alone must be dynamic. changing and socially critical.

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# 19.6 BREAKING NEW GROUND IN ABORIGINAL EDUCATION

## - an alternative approach to acquiring professional skills

### INTRODUCTION:

In 1989 the Catholic College of Education Sydney will introduce a new course which emphasises the contribution which Aboriginal culture and tradition can make to all learning and development as well as attempting to meet the specific needs of Aboriginal people in widening their access to tertiary education. The College is responding to the challenge which comes from both church and community sources to redress the imbalance which has existed for two hundred years.

At the time of a N.S.W. Catholic Education Commission survey in 1986 only one Aboriginal teacher and eight Aboriginal Education Assistants were employed in Catholic schools in N.S.W. Yet 220 schools in nine dioceses had Aboriginal students enrolled. Of the total teaching force in Catholic schools, 17 teachers had specific training in Aboriginal education. Several Catholic Dioceses have developed policy statements on Aboriginal Education for their schools and the C.E.C. in N.S.W. has approved a Document of Understanding on Aboriginal Education for implementation in all Catholic schools.

### CALL FROM THE CHURCH:

Inspiration has come from the words of Pope John Paul II at the meeting with Aboriginal and Torres Strait Island people at Alice Springs in 1986:

> Many of you have been dispossessed of your traditional lands, and separated from your tribal ways, though some of you still have your traditional culture. Some of you are establishing Aboriginal communities in the towns and cities. For others there is still no real place for camp-fires and kinship observances except on the fringes of country towns. There, work is hard to find, and education in a different cultural background is difficult. The discrimination caused by racism is a daily experience....
>
> Take heart from the fact that many of your languages are still spoken and that you still possess your ancient culture. You have kept your sense of brotherhood. If you stay closely united, you are like a tree-standing in the middle of a bush-fire sweeping through the timber. The leaves are scorched and the tough bark is scarred and burned; but inside the tree the sap is still flowing, and under the ground the roots are still strong. Like that tree you have endured the flames, and you still have the power to be reborn. The time for this rebirth is now!

The Social Justice Paper issued by the major christian Churches in 1987 - A Just and Proper Settlement - reinforced the message of John Paul II and calls the whole Christian community to repentance and reconciliation. Attitudes and policies which have discriminated against Aboriginals must be changed and conscious efforts made to achieve greater equity of opportunity.

## CALL FROM THE COMMUNITY:

For over ten years the National Aboriginal Education Committee has been addressing the problems of access. To date Aboriginal people have not been well served by Australian education systems:

> At all levels from preschool to tertiary, the structures and processes of education generally are inappropriate and give little recognition to the needs and aspirations of Aborigines. General education facilities are often not available in Aboriginal communities while resources for special programs are often inadequate. (N.A.E.C. 1986: 7)

The N.A.E.C. report indicates that educational institutions and government agencies are increasingly recognising their responsibilities in this field. Many Colleges are offering a range of special programs to provide greater access to tertiary education for Aboriginal people. While there is a greater range of programs available and improved access for Aboriginal students there is still a need for these programs to embody the culture of the Aboriginal people.

> Teacher education institutions should develop and teach educational theory and methodology incorporating the values and culture of Aboriginal society; courses in "studies in education" should include Aboriginal education perspectives wherever possible; practice teaching should include experience in classrooms with a significant Aboriginal enrolment; and Aboriginal studies should form a compulsory study area. Students should also be given an opportunity to develop a knowledge of, and skills in, curriculum development, communication, teaching English as a second language or dialect, and situational diagnosis. (N.A.E.C. 1986: 16)

## CONSULTATION PROCESS:

The establishment in 1985 of an Aboriginal Education Support Unit at C.C.E.S. has enabled the College to implement some of the above proposals. Through the work of the Academic Head and the Liaison Officer the College has been consulting with Aboriginal people in local communities and with State and Federal organisations to design a course which would attempt to meet the needs of the people referred to in the N.A.E.C. report, in a manner which would make it feasible for them to contemplate enrolment. To achieve this the College needed to review the mode of offering currently available for its pre-service teacher education courses, which all require full time attendance at the College for three years.

Surveys completed by Aboriginal community members indicated that the skills they wished to develop were related to community development and liaison tasks as well as classroom and school based activities. Course planning acknowledged this need with a two phase program of an Associate Diploma with emphasis on liaison skills, and the extension to a Diploma with concentration on the teacher's role. The latter is the College's current Diploma in Teaching for primary teachers.

## COMMUNITY BASED COURSE:

In the report Aborigines and Tertiary Education: A Framework for the 1985-87 Triennium there is a series of recommendations from the National Aboriginal Education Committee for study opportunities to be made available within the student's own community. The College's proposal attempts to meet the needs of its prospective students by taking the course off-campus to the students' home communities.

Benefits which derive from students remaining in their own communities while pursuing studies include:

1. Rural communities, with a shortage of leaders, are not deprived of key support people for several years.
2. Mature-aged students do not have to leave families and be exposed to the strains which separation brings.
3. Greater opportunity to retain and develop links with both contemporary and traditional culture rather than pressured to conform to the dominant urban lifestyle.
4. Learning can be integrated with the life of the local community providing a focus on specific needs.
5. Other members of the community can be involved and gain benefits from the learning process.
6. Less danger of isolating learning from the realities of everyday life - praxis of theory and practice.
7. Opportunity to avoid the "banking" model of education, where intellectual credit is stored for later use in the practical situation. Off campus location allows an action/reflection model with students maintaining contact with the issues and struggles of their own people and seeking relevant solutions while learning.

To maximise these benefits there was a need for the College to initiate changes in the delivery of learning opportunities normally used with on-campus students. Support is to be provided through tutors working with students both individually and in groups in their local communities. The delivery of the course will involve College staff travelling regularly to regional centres to complement the student contact achieved through College based attendance schools each semester. The student intake in any year will need to be restricted to one or two regional centres to facilitate the operation of the student support program. Tutors are now being recruited for 1989 and College Staff will assist in their preparation, as well as producing the resources for the course presentation. The experience gained through distance education and other off-campus programs will be used to advantage, to ensure that quality learning materials are produced and the course matches the professional standard of existing College awards.

## COURSE DEVELOPMENT:

An important component of the course development program during 1987 and 1988 has been an enculturation experience for the College staff involved in writing the subject units for the new course. The College's Aboriginal Education Support Unit arranged for members of the N.S.W. A.E.C.G. and other Aboriginals to provide input through lectures, videos and discussion. These regular workshops have enabled lecturers to develop greater empathy for the Aboriginal people as well as providing valuable background for the course units as they were being written. The words of John Paul II quoted earlier indicate the respect for a culture which has been developed over 40,000 years, which must be acknowledged by present day Australians.

Contemporary research interest in teaching and learning styles has been accompanied by a growing body of data related to Aboriginal culture and its impact on learning modes (see Eckermann 1987). The Aboriginal Pedagogy Project of the Curriculum Development Centre is one attempt to understand and disseminate the implications of an Aboriginal pedagogy and the course has benefited from the early stages of the project.

Since most of the students will wish to use their skills within their own communities both course content and teaching/learning strategies must be appropriate to local needs. In the coming months,prior to the commencement of the course, College staff will be visiting the communities identified for the initial intake, to continue the enculturation process and to prepare tutors for the critical role they will play in the course implementation.

Teaching strategies will focus on both individual and collaborative learning which will follow from negotiation between lecturer and student. Learning can be individually paced avoiding the competitive style which tends to dominate in a large institutional environment. Throughout the course the context for learning will be the local community, and Aboriginal people will contribute to the Cultural Studies strand from their own history and traditions. Students will be encouraged to explore and analyse their own community, its values, attitudes and resources in the light of current cultural perspectives in Education. The aim of the course as a whole is to facilitate professional and personal growth using adult modes of teaching and learning. To this end students will be involved in evaluation of themselves and their peers as part of the assessment process.

## QUALIFICATIONS TO BE ACHIEVED:

The course has been designed as an adaptation of the Diploma in Teaching phase of the College's B. Ed (Primary). Those graduating with a Diploma will be eligible to continue studies for their degree following the experience phase required of all Primary B. Ed students, before they complete Year IV by part time study.

As explained above, the first two years of the Diploma course have been planned with a strong emphasis on communication and liaison skills with a local community focus. The possibility exists for students to exit after two years with an Associate Diploma in Aboriginal Education. This qualification will equip graduates with the professional skills required for work in welfare, liaison and community development occupations. In rural centres people with these skills are eagerly sought for position in local communities and with State and Federal Government departments. Further details of the aims, objectives and content of the course will be available at the Conference session.

# 20.1 'NONE OF THE BOYS WERE MISSING': the genesis of Teacher Education in the Sepik and the economics of social reconstruction in Papua New Guinea'

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In July 1971, the West Sepik District Education Board (PNG) credited a Franciscan priest, Martin Schumack OFM, with having established formal western education in the West Sepik through setting up 'a Central Primary School which catered for our brightest male students within the West Sepik District'. The school in concern had been originally established in 1949 at Vanimo as a Teacher's College and was financed by the Australian Government under the provisions of the Commonwealth Reconstruction Training Scheme (CRTS).

The circumstances that gave rise to state support for teacher education in PNG in the post-war period, ironically replicate those operating in the present economic environment in Australia: the need to link a certain type of schooling to economic development and growth in order to serve national interest.

The West Sepik provides a history of schooling and economic development that can be put into a 'nut-shell'. The Vanimo cum Seleo Teachers' College likewise provides a lens for viewing a relationship between education and economy in PNG and other emerging Pacific nations. This presentation will trace the early ethnographic history of that institution and economic reconstruction.

## The Setting

The Vanimo CRTS school was a reflection of the state's post-war concern to establish an economic base for PNG. The CRTS was on about reconstruction in the sense of re-building and planned social change. It was meant to provide training in western skills, and by implication training for participation in a new social order. Economy, training and western formal education was the stuff of the CRTS or alternatively, schooling for national interest.

The interest of the Australian administration in social reconstruction was not really shared by the people of the West Sepik coast in the post-war period. The Sepik coast was devastated by a war occasioned by three military invasions. Patrol Reports from 1947 through the 1960s record an unabated concern amongst Sepik people to either maintain or improve their standard of living and an interest on the part of many village men to get rich quite rapidly. But this desire for increased prosperity was always couched within the terms of the villagers themselves. So, in 1947 when plans were made to introduce CRTS along the West Sepik coast a number of problems were encountered. A government official at Aitape reported

> The Malols, Arops and Sissanos seem very well-content with their present economic organisation and resources; there was no noticeable eagerness to avail themselves of the opportunity of training in useful trades offered by the Commonwealth Reconstruction Scheme...(Aitape PR No.8, 1946/47).

Nevertheless, a CRTS school was introduced. The Vanimo school in the mind of government officials financing its operation was a training institution for future teachers. For the catholic missionaries who ran it, it was initially a catechist school that would enable the mission to spread tentacles through the Sepik. They eventually came to see it as a teachers' college. In reality, it was a primary school for youths, and for those who succeeded, an avenue for entering teaching, the government or commerce. For Sepiks, it was a new institution and one that was not easily comprehended.

Historically, the Vanimo school demonstrated a certain symbiosis between the intent of the church behind economic development in the West Sepik and the intent of village communities in their attempts to manage with the processes of imposed change. This symbiosis does not lend itself to contemporary theories of schooling concerning reconstruction and reproduction.

Explanations concerning the social reproductive function of schooling or education popular during the late 1970s and early 1980s are not entirely adequate for schools and schooling in non western nations. Theories concerning the reproductive nature of schools certainly do not accommodate change. Carlson (1987) has argued that critical theories of education, in focussing on the social reproductive function of schooling, more often than not, fail to to emphasize the potential of teachers as agents of educational and social change. This class cultural theory places teaching and schooling in an ethnographic frame of reference that allows an examination of what sense is being made of the school experience -the myths, the obstructions, the attempts to explain and accommodate change and resistance emerge in this sort of analysis. The view held by Carlson that teachers are an important force for transformative change in the schools is in reaction to the social reproductive theory that sees teachers as

> heavily implicated in the reproduction of oppressive worldviews, modes of work behaviour, and social and technical relations of production...(Carlson,1987).

This is an interesting perception as the reasoning behind transformative change was similar to those that promoted a CRTS involvement in schools.

The CRTS and by implication, the Vanimo school contained elements of reproduction and reconstruction. Before the reproductive powers of formal western education could come into train in the Sepik (and PNG) social reconstruction had to be effected. Village societies had to be changed somehow to perceive a need for schools and western thought in the first place and Sepik teachers had to also be equipped with a sense of a continued need for village based change before they could effect any transformative changes. Once these changes had been consolidated then reproductive processes could be set in motion and through it, the foundations of stratification, inequality, elitism and oppression firmly rooted in traditional and urban spheres of life. If that was the master-plan in 1949 conceived by church and state, then it was cast during a time when the people of the West Sepik had different ideas.

The Vanimo school was very unsuccessful. It failed within two years. The resident priests/teachers witnessed an ongoing loss of students who found little to keep themselves involved in a school system that seemed to promise no immediate return for the effort being put in. Ten students (30%) left in one evening on 12 July 1951. Several days later, few students remained. The priests recorded

> Discovered that the remaining four Warapus...all walked out during the night. Besides the Vanimos, that leaves only the Sissanos & two Malols at the School...but I am prepared to see most of these make a breakaway. Taking the native mind & things having gone so far -with no means of compulsion either here or at the other end, in their villages- the whole affair is completely beyond my control. I leave it the judgement of my superiors whether the cause of the matter can be put down to any mis-judgement or mis-handling on my part (in matters of discipline, school-work, manual work, recreations etc.) (Vanimo Chron, 17 July 1950)

The solution was to relocate the school on Seleo Island. There, it served the function of keeping students who had no means of returning to their villages. The bulk of this presentation will examine what the students who attended the Seleo school had to say about schooling, wage labour and 'modernization' during this post war era.

20.2

# Quality in Teacher Education: The Case of the Third Year at Goroka Teachers College, Papua New Guinea.

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## Introduction

At a time when the teaching profession throughout the world is facing enormous budgetary cuts, teacher education along with many other sectors of the educational systems will need to develop stringent policies in order to maintain expected levels of output. Many government policies are determined to ensure that there is rationalization in educational programs and especially of institutions that offer these programs, so that diminishing resources can be equitably distributed amongst the clientele. In many respects, government policies, either, indirectly or directly influence and sometimes undermine many of the developments that ultimately enhance education.

This paper is concerned with the developments at Goroka Teachers College, a college of the University of Papua New Guinea. The college is responsible for the training of secondary teachers, and the only one of its kind in the country. The need to upgrade teacher education programs have been under debate for some time with no definite decisions reached. However, the decision by the College's Board Of Studies, about three years ago on changes to the current two year program, paved the way for the subsequent introduction of the three year program. As of 1989 the new three year diploma will take effect, a decision which is fully supported by the National Department of Education.

The college has been offering for the past twenty odd years a two year diploma in teaching. Students specialize in two teaching subjects taken from nine currently being offered at the college. These subjects are currently prescibed syllabuses for the secondary school curricula. Of the nine subjects from which students may choose are: English, Maths, Science, Social Science, Home Economics, Commerce, Design and Technology, Expressive Arts and Physical Education. A one year post gaduate diploma course in Agricultural Education is also offered, whose graduates may qualify to teach agriculture in provincial high schools.

It has been argued that in order to increase the quality of education, teacher education programs must be constantly reviewed and courses upgraded. The tendency has been to, move away from a syllabus-based teacher education program and, to offer a broad-based teacher education in a wide range of courses.

In order for a trainee to gain sufficient background knowledge in his/her subject area, it would mean spending more time at college. The arguments for a longer period of time spent in training has its advantages and disadvantages ( Evans, 1980). More importantly, teacher education curricula needs to be seriously addressed, in the light of the " continuous renovation and development of general and pedagogical knowledge, and the constant changes taking place in education systems " ( Unesco, 1975: 23 ).

While the arguments are all positive and lend credibility to the need for a longer period of training, it must be accepted with caution. Research has not necessarily substantiated, whether or not, a longer or shorter period of training does make a difference to teacher effectiveness. Competency in teaching and effectiveness in schooling, while developed through pre-service training, is greatly enriched through continuous practice. Practice, therefore, makes the practitioner perfect and must be seen to be an important process in teaching and learning.

It has been accepted for some time that the teacher education program at Goroka Teachers College was long overdue for change. The need for the upgrading of courses, and to introduce a three year diploma has been well recognized. However several factors have contributed to the delay which have been significantly responsible for the existence of the two year diploma for the past twenty years.

First, the two year program was seen to be adequate and provided the need for teachers in provincial high schools despite the concern that it was too closely syllabus-based ( Guthrie, 1983 ). Secondly, the high school system was largely staffed by expatriate teachers with a very small proportion of national staff. Whilst this did not cause any major problems in staffing, the probelm would be seriously hampered by the time independence was achieved in 1975. Thirdly, there wasnt enough resources particularly in terms of funding to successfully support an extra year for teacher training. The government had already been operating a National Scholarship scheme which paid for all tuition and boarding fees, a book allowance and a fortnightly pocket allowance for all students attending tertiary institutions. Education by this time had been receiving the biggest slice of the country's budget.

The increasing number of schools, and the rising school population immediately following independence, meant that more teachers were needed in schools to fill in the already depleting staff population. This was particularly serious since a large proportion of teachers, predominantly expatriates, had to leave the country leaving large gaps in the high school system. The problem was further compounded by the process of localization especially after independence. The process involved replacing a largely expatriate workforce with inexperienced nationals, many of whom generally were not adequately qualified nor experienced for the jobs that they took over. Teaching, especially secondary education, was one of the areas in education that experienced this sudden vacum in staff shortages. This position has not improved very much since there is still not enough teachers to teach in the 110 high schools throughout the country. The alarming attrition rate of secondary teachers has also contibuted to shortfalls in staffing in high schools ( Kuhlman, 1981 )

Concern over falling standards in education following independence culminated in 1981 with the appointment by the minister of education of the Committee of Enquiry into Educational Standards. This committee, chaired by Simon Kenehe, published an extensive report which later served as a working document for a number of areas in education. Among other recommendations, the report urged that the pre-service training programs in teachers colleges needed immediate reviews, particularly, in the upgrading of courses, and that the current two year programs be upgraded to three years. It further recommended that the entry levels for colleges be raised from grade ten to grade twelve, a view strongly endorsed earlier by Rogers ( 1980 ).

Goroka Teachers College by 1984 had increased its intake of grade twelve students and dicussions also took place with respect to changing the teacher education program to three years. It was not until 1985/86 that the proposal was finally accepted by the University of Papua New Guinea, Goroka Teachers College and the Department of Education.

The new three year diploma will take effect as of 1989. In view of the the concern over the limited knowledge of graduates, particularly in their teaching subjects, the focus of the new diploma will be on content and less on syllabus studies.

### What Quality and Whose Standards ?

The problem of falling educational standards and the quality of education has plagued many countries. Papua New Guinea is therefore, no exception to this dilema. The tendency for many developing countries has been to adopt western ideas and systems of education which in many ways did not idealy suit the cultural and social contexts of that particular country. Many new ideas from the developed countries were ill siuted to developing countries and often became stumbling blocks to educational and cultural progress.

Crossley ( 1984: 76 ) has warned us that " simplistic, uncritical ( or unrecognized ) international transfer frequently leads to innovation failure or generates unwanted or unanticipated consequences ".This is an important consideration that must be realized when analysis of systems are made which in many instances does not work in their new contexts.

It has been accepted that there is no significant relationship between students' socio-economic background and academic achievement in developing countries. School factors more than anything else have shown to have been powerful determinants of academic achievement than in the developed world ( Heyneman, 1976, 1983; Heyneman & Loxley, 1983 ). As the World Bank ( 1980: 32-33 ) put it:

> In developing countries school and teacher variables are more important in explaining variations in student achievement than in developed countries. In fact, school variables taken together sometimes explain, more than social background does, the variations in the achievement of students.

In Papua New Guinea, where school, as well as out-of -school factors strongly influence levels of academic achievemnet, it would seem appropriate to consider these factors in order to determine how best they can be incorporated into an education system. Raising standards in education, and improving quality in education, does not necessarily result from drastic changes in educational programs. Rather, changes occur, when programs are developed that have a measure of consciousness, of intervening factors, and being able to realize what types of changes are desirable, as against what is not educationally appropriate for a country.

It would seem to be, that, if any changes to programs of teacher education are to occur, and especially at Goroka Teachers College, it would need to consider several important issues.

1. Changes must be envisaged in the light of impending or desired outcomes within the context of development. This in the main should be consciously taken into account so that relevant and useful training is carried out as a resul of it.

2. It would seem that college training should aim for a higher purpose of qualitative training. This, while already becoming the feature of recent development in teacher training, should be further strenthened through two principal means:

(a) The immediate changes to admission procedures where the entry levels should aim for grade twelve graduates, and to terminate the recruitment of grade ten graduates.

(b) That there be a gradual increase in the offering of courses in the teacher education program that ultimately will lead to the introduction of degree programs. This should be the desired outcome and must be incorporated in policies that allow for these changes to take effect when the need emerges.

3. A greater effort be made in the further training and post-graduate experiences of current academic staff, particularly national staff. This would ensure that the college would have highly qualified and experienced national academics who will have the responsibility for ensuring that the college continues to maintain its high academic standards.

The developments that are taking place at Goroka Teachers College are crucial and are a necessary part of improving effectiveness in teacher education. These changes must, therefore, be seen within the context of qualitative education. As such they would need to become the means by which future programs can be measured. Its success and its role in producing highly trained and capable teachers has already been realized. This must be increased and sustained.

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# 2c·3.1 The Educational and Social Consequences of Bi-national Migration on Children of Farmworkers

The curriculum changes being made throughout the United States to foster more effective schools and to promote higher academic standards are necessary ones; the potential exists, however, for the reforms to be implemented at the expense of selected groups of students. One such group is comprised of bi-national migrant children. Hispanic students, in general, and migrant students, in particular, are one of the most "at risk" students in the United States today. Census data indicate that just over 60% of Hispanics aged 18 to 24 have completed high school as compared to 83% of Anglo students in the same age group. By the year 2000, this minority population will become the majority in California and other states of the Southwest. A report from the Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education (1987) states that " If education is not made more successful for minorities than it has been, we will fall behind in achieving our goal of social justice and in meeeting our needs for economic growth." The committee further stresses that " educational practices and teaching methods may have to change to accomodate more diverse student bodies, and diverse cultural perspectives must be integrated into the curriculum at all levels of education." This research paper addresses these concerns.

## Statement of the Problem

Every country believes that its future relies on the effective education and socialization of each new generation of children. These children represent hope, growth, and productivity for both emerging and established nations. Nations whose population remains settled within the country's boundaries can depend on their own educational institutions to develop children in a manner congruent with the particular traditions upheld in the country. Many countries, however, face the phenomenon of bi-national migration; a situation characterized by citizens of one country traveling to another for a period of employment, then returning home. (Oropeza, 1982) While migration may be a positive economic choice for families, the political, social, and cultural consequences of such a decision are complex and often problematic for both the migrants and the communities that send and receive them. California, for example, faces recent growth in bi-national migration; 20,000 children travel between their home towns in Mexico and the receiving towns in California annually. (La Cooperativa, 1984) These families come North to work through summer and fall, then return to Mexico when the work ends. Parents endure the low pay, long hours, and social discrimination inherent in temporary seasonal work. The children are forced to change school in the middle of the year, struggling to adapt to an unfamiliar educational environment where classes are conducted in a language with which they have limited proficiency and in accordance to a different set of cultural expectations.

These students begin to experience early school failure which continues to haunt them until most bi-national children drop out of school, both in Mexico and in the United States.

The growing phenomenon of bi-national migration in many areas of the world presents a dilemma to teachers and administrators. Teachers know little about the school system; its philosophy, its curriculum, its structure, from which these children come and return to each year. (Guzman,1981) Policies and practices are implemented that may be in conflict with those experienced in the home country.

## The Study

In order to effectively educate the international migrant student, school personnel must have a knowledge of the unique characteristics of such students. In the effort to understand the lives of one such group of children, the California State Department of Education funded a year long research study, which I conducted. The purpose of the study was to document the educational and social consequences of international migration on the children of migrant farmworkers traveling between Mexico and the Unites States. The major assumption was that the social and educational systems encountered by international migrant childen fail to accommodate their special needs, and thereby contribute to the students' scholastic failure and cultural disenfranchisement. The contextual interaction model proposed by Cortes (1986) provided a model for the analysis of educational avhievement to include non-school factors such as family, community, culture, perceptions and socio-economic status. All factors playing a role in the life of the bi-national migrant child. In addition, this model recognizes that institutions function within and are a product of particular cultural values.

An ethnographic research design with a criterion- based sampling technique was utilized. Data collection strategies were triangulated to include classroom observations, structured and non-structured interviews with teachers, administrators, parents and children, and the review of archival and demographic data and school records. Data analysis utilized an inductive approach, one that sought emergent themes or patterns arising from the following questions:

1. What are the unique educational and social characteristics of the international migrant child?
2. What is the typical pattern of movement of these children?
3. How does this migration pattern affect the children's schooling?
4. What are the instructional methodologies used in Mexican schools?
5. How do these methodologies blend or clash with those used in American schools?
6. What is the curriculum scope and sequence of the Mexican primary educational system and how does compare with that of the US?

This study traced the historical causes and consequences of migration, investigated the social reality of families in both the host and home countries, and described the similiarities and differences in the approach to primary education between Mexico and the United States. It is through the interaction of such factors that the lives of the children are formed. Unfortunately, these factors, while remaining both misunderstood and ignored, have nevertheless inhibited the academic and social development of bi-national migrant children, and thus tarnished the bright potential that these children represent for both countries.

The research findings led to recommendations for both policy-makers and classroom teachers regarding (1) classroom environments and teaching methodologies, (2) the need for teacher inservice on the contextual factors pertaining to bi-national migration, (3) cultural expectations and involvement patterns of parents in the school setting, and (4) the impact of cultural definitions of " success " on student achievement.

## Objectives of Working Session

This presentation will allow participants to:

1. Identify a contextual interaction model which can be used as a framework for understanding the characteristics of culturally diverse students.
2. Understand how the model might be used to foster positive changes through which the quality and quantity of the educational and social experiences of children can be increased.
3. Consider ways teacher attitudes affect classroom practices, leading to student failure.
4. View a video synthesizing the research findings
5. Apply the research findings to one's own particular situation.

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20.3.2.

# THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS FOR NON- AND LIMITED-ENGLISH PROFICIENT STUDENTS

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Since the beginning of the 1970s the Washington, D.C. area has had a large influx of families whose native tongue, or first language, is not English. During the Vietnam War, and the years following, a large number of refugees from Vietnam, Cambodia, Laos, and Thailand have immigrated to the United States. Many have settled in the Washington area and as more of these immigrants have arrived, they have tended to settle in those locations where families from their homeland have previously settled. Thus, where one family settled, soon there were two. Where two lived, there were two more, so that the end result has been large pockets of refugees from the same geographical area.

This phenomenon is not limited to those with Asian backgrounds. As civil strife and economic hardship have engulfed many of the countries in Latin America, groups of families from these areas have come to this country. As with the Asian families, they, too, tend to cluster in locations where families from the same countries have settled.

Of course, this situation is not new to the United States. We have been called a nation of immigrants since a vast proportion of the population are descendants from individuals and families who came to this country since its founding. In some cities, such as Baltimore for example, there have been neighborhoods which have been inhabited primarily by people of Italian, German, Latvian, Estonian, Irish, and Polish backgrounds.

Most large American cities on both the east and west coasts have their Chinatowns. The West Coast, particularly in the state of California, has its Japanese areas also. In this light, the United States has not been so much a "melting pot" as it has often been a collection of ethnic neighborhoods, each with its unique identity.

Before the recent influx of the non-English speaking population, the schools made little or no attempt to provide assistance in English instruction except in "night schools" or adult education classes, primarily for adults or older members of the family. Children, with a greater capacity for picking up languages, survived the best they could in the public or parochial schools. For some, this task might not proved too much of an obstacle, but for others it may have been too great a price to pay. The dropout rate for Hispanic children is quite high compared to that of the other segments of the population. According to a study by the U.S. Department of Education, Hispanic students have the second highest dropout rate of any ethnic group, even higher than for blacks. (The group with the highest dropout rate is the American Indian.)

Beginning in the 1960s and gaining momentum in the 1970s, other studies began to focus on the effect of language barriers to the educational well-being of the children. The movement to provide assistance to students whose first language was not English began to grow. In 1967, the U.S. Congress passed the Bilingual Education Act (Title VII of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, as amended). This bill was signed into law by President Lyndon Johnson in 1968 and gave the responsiblity for its implementation to the U. S. Department of Education. The Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Affairs (OBEMA) was established within the Department to assist school districts and other institutions in developing programs for non-English speaking and English as a Second Language (ESL) families. Of additional significance was the U.S. Supreme Court ruling in 1974 (Lau v. Nichols) which stated that limited English-speaking children were entitled to some type of remedial instruction.

The 1980 U.S. Census lists the proportion of students who spoke a language other than English at home at 9.7% of the total school age population (ages 5-17). The states with the highest percentages of limited English-speaking (LEP) children are New Mexico (36.6%), Texas (25.6%), California (23.0%) and Arizona (22.5%). The District of Columbia and the surrounding states of Maryland and Virginia have 5.4%, 5.1%, and 3.9% respectively. Many of the LEP students in Maryland and Virginia are located in the suburban areas of Washington, D.C., thus increasing the concentration of LEP students in this metropolitan area.

To provide educational support for these children, bilingual education programs have been established. The operational definition of bilingual education has changed to reflect shifting emphasis in the program. Simply stated, bilingual education is instruction in two languages and the use of those two languages as mediums of instruction for any part of or all of the school curriculum. It is not just "education for bilinguals," nor is it an Englsih as a second language program (ESL), although ESL is a necessary part. Bilingual education is an approach designed to teach English to non- and limited-English-proficient (LEP) students while they develop academic concepts and skills in their home language. This approach facilitates their progress in academic subjects and their successful transition to English-language educational programs.

The School of Education and Human Development (SEHD) of The George Washington University received a grant to institute a training program for teachers in the bilingual programs of the local school districts. The basic purpose of this grant was to provide training (courses, seminars, etc.) for teachers whose primary responsibilities involved working with students with limited-English proficiency. Its goal is to provide teachers with sufficient training to meet certification requirements of their primary certifying units, e.g., in the states of Virginia and Maryland this would be in the State Department of Education. Within the District of Columbia, it would be in the District's Certification Board.

The grant provided funds for tuition benefits for teachers to enroll in courses and workshops. The grant was awarded to the Department of Educational Leadership of the School of Education and Human Development which developed courses especially designed for this population. Newly designed courses were in the areas of:

1. ESL Methods
2. English Morphology and Syntax
3. English Phonetics and Phonology
4. Teaching ESL in the Content Area.

In addition to new courses, students also enrolled in a variety of courses designed to meet certification requirements offered through various departments within the University. It should be noted that these courses are from offerings within the School of Education and Human Development as well as those from other divisions within the University.

## SELECTION OF CLIENTS

When the Department of Educational Leadership of the School of Education and Human Development received the grant from OBEMA, notification of tuition benefits was sent to the surrounding school districts and individuals were encouraged to apply. Each application was reviewed by the staff to determine which met the established criteria. There are three categories of applicants.

First priority applicants are those who are currently working with limited-English proficient children, either as a teacher or as a teacher-aide. They must have an overall grade point average of 3.00 or better, have two or more years experience in a classroom setting, have completed the third year college level proficiency in a language other than English, and are currently taking courses towards a degree in education leading to certification in ESL.

Second priority applicants are undergraduate students enrolled in college, university, or community college and taking courses towards a degree in education leading to certification in ESL. They must have an overall grade point average of 3.00 or better, have completed a second year college level proficiency in a language other than English, and have had work experience in an educational setting.

Third priority applicants are those not presently enrolled at a college, university, or community college. They must have an Associate of Arts degree and/or a minimum of 45 hours of coursework towards the Bachelors Degree, have an overall grade point average of 2.70, have some knowledge of a language other than English, must be interested in pursuing a degree in education leading towards certification in ESL, and must have had some work experience with language minority culture children or adults.

Since the beginning of the program, 112 of the applicants have been accepted from the first priority group, 7 have been selected from the second priority group, and there have been no candidates selected from the third group. During the 1986-87 programmatic year, 100 teachers were granted tuition benefits from the program.

Evaluation forms have been completed by students within the program and the results indicate that all of the students are taking the course for certification as required by the local school districts. They unanimously felt that the courses were absolutely needed in order to meet the educational needs of LEP students, preferred to meet on Saturday mornings, agreed that the information they acquired would be very useful in improving their ability to teach English as a second language, and felt that this program had been useful in improving their ability to teach LEP students.

Considerable controversy exists concerning the effectiveness of bilingual programs, not only from an academic viewpoint, but also from a social and cultural viewpoint. As far as this program is concerned, the students at least view it as a favorable approach in preparing teachers to work with students whose background places them at a distinct disadvantage in the school setting. As long as the federal requirement exists that ESL students be taught in their native language, the schools must be prepared to meet that challenge with qualified teachers. This program is an attempt to provide certified individuals for just such a task.

# 20.3.3 Preparing Early Childhood Teachers for Multicultural Settings

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The preparation of early childhood educators to work effectively in multicultural settings is an area of teacher preparation that is of great significance due to increasing heterogeneous populations in the schools. The cultural diversity found in many communities reflects the need to enhance that understanding by having teachers capable of promoting multicultural awareness, in addition to training individuals to promote the intellectual, social, emotional and physical needs of children. The early years are crucial for establishing a foundation for children to develop critical thinking, a positive self image, organization skills, decision-making skills, interpersonal skills and accepting responsibility, to name a few. Competent early childhood teachers are essential for helping a child to develop positive attitudes toward learning and promoting a spirit of inquiry that will enhance young children's understanding of their world. Multicultural education thus serves as a theme for enabling young children to acquire knowledge and understanding of the multiplicity of cultures within a society. This knowledge enables young children to decenter themselves and to begin to accept and acknowledge the diversity in a society. While the goal of multicultural education is to develop this sensitivity to others, as all children share similar problems and feelings, it is equally important for teachers to encourage the uniqueness of all children.

Preparing early childhood teachers with the skills necessary for meeting all of these needs presented is a formidable task. This paper will attempt to provide an approach to the procedures needed to train early childhood educators to promote multicultural understanding in young children. The overall goal of such an endeavor is to not only impart this knowledge to children but to have well qualified teachers versed in multicultural understanding. Since early childhood teachers are significant others in the teaching of values, attitudes, and imparting knowledge, their role is essential for enabling children to become rational, humane, and responsible members of a society.

The need for multicultural education becomes even more apparent as technological advances in communication and travel open the world to increasing numbers of people. A multicultural thrust may have several components. This paper will concentrate on the aspect of acceptance of people from cultures other than one's own. Researchers have indicated that an emphasis on accepting other people should begin at an early age (Toney, 1972, Cogan, 1982). To accomplish this, teachers need to be prepared to include multicultural perspectives in the curriculum, especially during the formative years when attitudes and values are being formed. Multiculturism is an attitude, and only as teachers are prepared to incorporate positive attitudes toward others will they be able to help children do the same.

Multicultural education is an essential ingredient in the preparation of teachers for early childhood settings. Teacher educators report that teacher education curricula cannot be expanded any further, due to the demands inherent in the traditional curriculum. Multicultural education should not be regarded as an additional subject in teacher preparation courses, but must be incorporated into existing courses, emphasizing concepts and skills, rather than separate disciplines. This presentation will focus on multicultural emphases in curriculum development, fostering positive self-esteem, augmenting cultural knowledge, considering values, and facilitating prosocial skills.

Positive attitudes begin with acceptance of one's self. As children feel good about themselves as individuals, they will be able to develop positive self-esteem in the school environment. Learning about the cultures represented in the classroom is one way for teachers to learn more about individual children, and thus build self-esteem through respect for expressions of cultural traditions. Examining their own cultural values aids teachers in acknowledging values of others, and in helping children appreciate differing value systems. Acquiring skills and approaches for assisting children in developing prosocial skills is essential to positive classroom interactions. Learning to live together in a classroom establishes the guidelines for similar interactions in later years.

The goal of a multicultural education teacher preparation focus must be to prepare teachers to educate children for respect and acceptance of the wide diversity of people in the world.

# 21.1 Perceptions of Inexperienced and Experienced Teachers Regarding Specific Instructional Behaviours

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From the time of Jackson (1968) onwards, much has been written regarding the interactive complexity of classrooms. It is probably true to say that such classroom literature also indicates that there is considerable inequality in the nature and frequency of teacher-student contacts and that teachers may be relatively unaware that these inequalities actually occur.

Although much of the classroom literature is based on what actually occurs in classrooms the current study draws on what teachers believe or perceive is taking place in their classrooms and the classrooms of other teachers.

In this study two teacher behaviours were considered, namely, the use of praise and criticism. These behaviours were selected for two reasons. First, there has been a great deal of research in both areas that has not necessarily produced consistent findings. Second, there appears to be what might be called 'stylised' (or even stereotypic) beliefs or attitudes regarding the use and resultant outcomes from these behaviours. In generalised terms, these can be expressed as 'praise is good and has beneficial outcomes' whereas 'criticism is bad and has negative outcomes'.

The current study explored four research questions - (i) whether teachers perceived what they do with respect to praise and criticism is similar to what other teachers do; (ii) the circumstances in which teachers perceived themselves as using praise and criticism; (iii) whether teachers perceived praise and criticism being directed to specific groups or 'types' of students and (iv) if perceptions regarding praise and criticism are modified by teaching experience, sex of teacher or grade level most recently taught.

## Methodology

### *Sample*

The sample consisted of 74 inexperienced (trainee) teachers and 110 experienced teachers. The inexperienced teachers were in the third year of a Bachelor of Education (Primary) programme and the experienced teachers from 13 primary schools in New South Wales and Queensland.

### *Questionnaire*

A questionnaire was designed to gain information concerning teachers' perceived use of praise and criticism. Both Likert-type and open-ended questions were used.

*Data Collection*

Data were obtained from the inexperienced teachers on their return from a 6-week practice teaching session. The data were obtained from experienced teachers with the permission and assistance of school principals.

*Data Analysis*

This was largely based on percentages, rank order correlation, multivariate analysis of variance and univariate F's.

## Results

The following is an abridgment of both the results and findings. Details, including tables, will be found in the paper distributed at the conference.

*Self Compared to Other Teachers*

Teachers perceived themselves as praising more and criticising less than other teachers. In general terms, this sample of teachers perceived themselves in a more favourable light than they perceived other teachers.

*Reasons for Using Praise and Criticism*

Fifty nine percent of these teachers said they would use praise when students made an effort to improve achievement levels. Seventy percent indicated they used criticism as a result of unacceptable behaviour (disruptiveness, rudeness, hurting others, unkind to others, etc.). It is perhaps worth commenting that some teachers indicated that they did 'not believe in the use of criticism', or that they never use it.

*Types of Students who are Praised or Criticised*

These teachers perceived that they would praise more frequently 'children lacking self-confidence'. 'low achievers who want to improve' and 'children who arouse your personal concern'. Criticism would more frequently be directed toward 'disruptive high achievers', 'disruptive low achievers' and 'assertive non-conforming children'. (Note. A negative correlation of -.85 was reported between the rankings of the frequency of praising and criticising 14 'types' of students.)

*Variables Influencing Perceived Use of Praise and Criticism*

(a) Sex of teacher: This was not a significant variable in the perceived use of praise and criticism.

(b) Teacher experience: There was a significant multivariate main effect related to the inexperienced/experienced contrast for both the praise and criticism data sets.

(c) Grade level taught: This was not a significant variable in the criticism data but in the praise data set there were significant interactions between experienced and grade level taught and experience and sex of teacher. The following figure illustrates the extent of difference relating to the sex of teacher and the use of praise for 'children to whom you feel indifferent'.

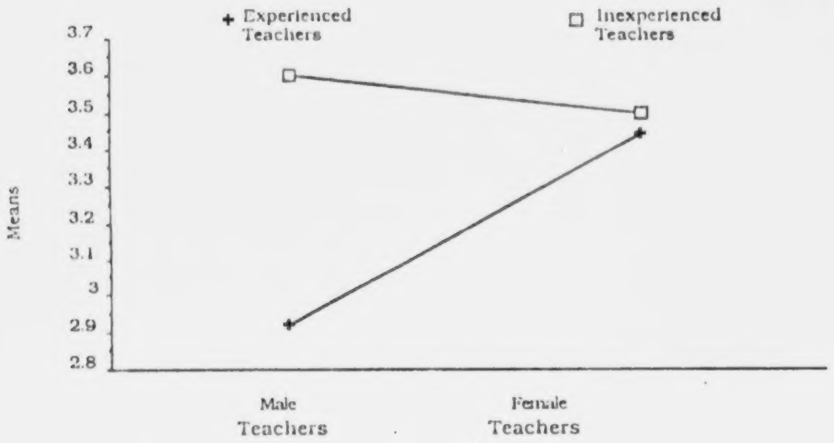

Figure 1: Significant interaction between teacher experience and sex of teacher for perceived use of praise with children to whom you feel indifferent.

## Conclusions

Several major conclusions can be based on this data.

1. These teachers perceived themselves as praising students more and criticising less than 'other teachers'.

2. Praise was perceived as being used more in relation to 'achievement' than 'behaviour'. Criticism was perceived as being used more in relation to 'behaviour' than 'achievement'.

3. Specific 'types' or groups of students are praised or criticised. In general terms those students perceived as being praised are not perceived as being criticised with similar frequency.

4. Inexperienced, or trainee, teachers are inclined to perceive themselves as praising certain 'types' of students more, and

criticising certain 'types' of students less than experienced teachers. Grade level taught and sex of teacher tends to also influence this contrast. Are experienced male senior primary teachers inclined to be critical of certain types of students?

## Discussion

A study such as the current one generates a considerable amount of data and as a consequence of this a range of issues can be discussed that relate to teacher education. It is intended to focus on the following areas during the discussion of this paper.

### Teacher perceptions and teacher education

(i) To what extent is the type of data collected in this study being used in teacher education programmes? (Should it be used?)

(ii) Is it important to indicate in teacher training programmes the known contrasts in perceptions (or attitudes/beliefs/thoughts) of experienced and inexperienced teachers? (This probably raises the question of the extent to which the nature of teacher education programmes reflect current research.)

(iii) What areas do we lack research-based information in Australian teacher education programmes?

### Teacher perceptions and classroom reality

(i) What roles are performed by teacher praise and criticism? (Are the perceived roles similar to, or discrepant from, what research indicates as existing?)

(ii) How important is the question of teacher awareness? (What relationship exists between awareness and competency in instructional behaviour? Are training programmes considering the question of 'improving' teacher awareness?)

(iii) Why do teachers perceive what they do in a different, even more favourable light, than what other teachers do? (Is this phenomena related to teacher expectations, accuracy of interpersonal perceptions, self-projection or delusion, etc.?)

21.2

# Contrast Cases of Teacher Comprehension of Classroom Management

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Research on teachers' thinking has focused primarily on decision making and judgments using either policy capturing techniques or self-report methods in which teachers either think aloud while planning or respond to stimulated recall interviews. (see Clark & Peterson, 1986). This line of inquiry has underscored the fundamentally cognitive nature of teaching and has provided insight into the broad character of teachers' thoughts and the general domains on which they focus in their plans and decisions.

At the same time, little has been learned about the ways in which teachers recognize and interpret classroom events, order their thinking about the salience of particular incidents, predict the configuration of events over time, or reason about specific action-situation connections in classrooms. Not much progress has been made, in other words, in understanding what teachers know and how their knowledge is organized for use in solving classroom problems. Information about these aspects of teachers' thinking would seem to be essential for understanding the decisions teachers make and the plans they formulate. Moreover, a better picture of how teachers understand the events that unfold in classroom environments would seem to provide a valuable resource for planning teacher education programs and for working with teachers in instructional improvement.

This paper explores the concept of teacher comprehension. Specifically, it suggests ways to study teachers' knowledge of classroom management and how that knowledge is used to understand classroom events and processes. The basic method involves constructing, from a close examination of the teachers' actions, models of teacher comprehension that account for how teachers structure their classes and react to specific events during class sessions.

The paper focuses on how junior high school teachers, who differed on indicators of management success, solved the problem of order in their English classes. Four cases are examined and cognitive models are constructed to account for how more vs. less effective managers structured their classes and reacted to incidents that arose while they conducted class sessions. The major goal of the work is to represent different ways teachers comprehend management processes in classrooms.

Questions posed by these studies were not about differences in behavior or differences in decision making. Rather, questions were organized around discovering the schemata or scripts that permitted teachers to interpret instances of behavior and predict the likely configuration of events in a particular context. Contrast cases were used to determine whether different schemata or scripts would account for differences in management success. For purposes of these studies of classroom management schemata, it was assumed that interpretations and predictions were manifested in what the teachers chose to react to and dwell upon as they went about the task of solving the problem of order in their classrooms. By working backward from action to thought, attempts have been made to map how teachers' thoughts about classroom management were organized.

The four teachers in the case studies acted to solve the problem of order in very different ways and these actions appeared to reflect different conceptions of how that task of achieving order in classroom environments is achieved. The teachers' understandings have been summarized in terms of an organizing metaphor and several principles consistent with that metaphor.

In the first planned comparison of a "more" vs. a "less" effective classroom manager, it was suggested that much of what the more effective manager did (teacher 32 in the study) appeared to reflect a conception of her role as pilot. This metaphor carried with it a sense of movement and flow as well as obstacles and hazards. In addition, it suggested that the teacher viewed herself as someone guiding an entity separate from herself, viz., the classroom activity system. These connotations were consistent with the teacher's emphasis on sustaining activities and steering around obstacles rather than confronting them directly with reprimands. Much of the second teacher (Teacher 18's) management efforts consisted of reprimands directed to individual students and of attempts to secure a personal bond with students. Such action in solving the problem of classroom order appeared to reflect her conception of her role as guardian, and more specifically, a defender of a territory or a commodity. This metaphor captured this teachers' emphasis on reprimands, authority, and supervisory power to control inappropriate and disruptive behavior.

In the second comparison, the more effective managers' actions (Teacher 2) suggested a conception of her role as pathfinder and pacesetter. These metaphors carry a sense of this teacher's pressure for group movement, regulation, and tempo. Similar to the effective manager in the first contrast case, this teacher's emphasis was on directing and sustaining work along a planned program of action.

Actions and reactions of the less effective manager in the second contrast case suggest she viewed herself as gentle persuader and arbiter of adult conscience. She seemed to understand the classroom as a place where students were in need of coming to understand some important lessons about adulthood. Her actions suggested she wanted to "win over" misbehaving students and thereby accomplish order in her classrooms. By giving near exclusive attention to these students, however, this teacher often lost track of the program of action and any sense of group movement through the curriculum.

As has been suggested, the line of questioning in these cases of teacher comprehension was fundamentally different from typical approaches to studying teachers' cognitions. Here, questions about teachers' comprehension were framed considering the demands posed by a major task of teachers, that is, solving the problem of order.

This work suggests that accomplishing studies of teacher comprehension: (1) can facilitate the development of richer understandings about the cognitive structures that account for teachers' actions in cases, and (2) can help to build a case literature to be used in the professional preparation of teachers. Carter (in press) has argued that the development of a case literature for teacher education would provide a powerful resource for helping novice teachers to develop productive ways of thinking about classrooms.

The development of a case literature would appear to hold important promise for teacher education. It would be particularly helpful to begin to describe cases not simply referencing teachers' actions but also in terms of their task-related cognitions and in terms of their underlying cognitive structures or comprehension about their tasks.

Thus, the development of a case literature could enable teacher educators to present teaching as an organized system of acting and thinking in different task environments.

The utility of this emphasis on cognitive structures in cases rather than on prescriptive statements for practice can be seen if one thinks about a typical teacher education student in a teacher education program. It seems likely that one would learn a lot more about teaching from cases than through the commonly offered prescriptions like "be vigilant" or "be warm," etc. In fact, in the cases of comprehension written thus far, one can see that the these prescriptions would not appear to reflect the understandings of the more effective manager at all. For example, the teacher who was doggedly vigilant and who regularly tried to create a personal bond with students to get them to work had incredible problems in solving the problem of order. It would seem that developing and presenting cases which provided rich information about teachers' scripts or schema would allow teacher educators to work toward develop understandings rather than dictating practices.

If a large body of cases were to be developed, it might even be possible to:

(1) create an index system for cataloging cases in teacher education in terms of the likely consequences for prospective teachers' cognitions;
(2) study whether or not cases have the intended cognitive consequences for teacher candidates;
(3) determine which cases help bring about cognitions in novices which underlie expert performance in teachers.
(4) more easily approach learning to teach studies in a cognitive framework
(5) design more meaningful interventions for teacher education.

In the long run, studies of teacher comprehension of classroom processes such as management will enable teacher educators at preservice and inservice levels (a) to present classroom practices an an organized system of thinking and acting; (b) analyze more systematically the practices they observe in classrooms; and (c) confront the preconceptions teachers have about how classroom order and learning are established and maintained. Focus on cases of comprehension place cognition at the center of the teacher education enterprise. From this perspective, research on teacher comprehension is an essential component of the knowledge base for teacher education.

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## 21.3 Engagement: The experience of pre-service students

The term "engagement" has recently been used to describe how children in reading programs become captured by the text. Two key aspects of the term are a) that the context is student generated, and b) that meaningfulness grows out of the student's situated experience.

This is made an explicit component of the whole language program taught to pre-service students at Mount Gravatt. As the comments of supervising teachers indicate that they are not seeing engagement, it becomes important to ask why not? Is the notion of "engagement" inappropriate? Has it not been carefully explicated? Does the problem lie in student application of their learning? In this study "engagement" is made problematic in an effort to explore 1) how pre-service students are oriented to the students they teach, and 2) how they are oriented to the program in which they are the students. This two fold analysis discloses how we, as teacher educators, relate our practice to our students' practice.

The first section of this paper explores the theoretical foundations of the term. It seems to have at least three important aspects. These aspects are highlighted in; a) the practical work of reading researchers and their attempt to point to a particular quality of the reader-text relationship; b) the popular term "engagement"; c) the work articulated by existential philosophers.

In order to explore "engagement", two directions seemed to be important. The first was whether training teachers saw students as being engaged; and if this was the case, how they felt they were facilitating children's successful move to language. As engagement is not a skill which can be achieved by mechanically applying a system, it is important that these pre-service teachers be given their own experiences of being "engaged". Thus the second aspect of the study was to ask the training teachers when and how often they became engaged in their role as students at the college.

Third year pre-service students in a program which had focused on "whole language" for the three years, were given a questionnaire. Students were asked to define "engagement" and give examples of when they had witnessed students who were engaged. They were also asked how they encouraged engagement and what they would do once it was there. The focus here was on the "language class". The second part of the form asked them to reflect upon their experience as students in the pre-service program. They were asked to give an example of when they were engaged in the preservice program, and to give suggestions as to how our program could be made more engaging. Once the results were examined three students were interviewed in order to further explore "engagement".

The results point to the larger message which the institution and medium of instruction instills in teachers. Although we suggest to students that "language" programs begin in the experiences of the learners and that learning must build outwards from the individual, both the methods and assumptions of how we teach them about doing this, violate that very principle. In large part it seems that these third year students follow our example rather than experimenting with what we say should be done.

There is also a suggestion that the system has been internalized as system rather than as a way of reaching meaning relevant to the individual. Cogent arguments supporting spectatorship come easily to students.

The results suggest that we often advise students on what they should be doing, yet we fail to create an atmosphere where they can experience those things we talk about. It is also suggested that many students have internalized the macro-structure as expectations, and soem students refuse engagement in the academic situation.

The significant implications for innovative programs requiring engagement are discussed. Suggestions for overcoming some aspects of the structure are also given.

# 214 A CASE FOR THE GREATER CONCENTRATION OF THE STUDY OF THE LINKING OF *GROUP DYNAMICS*, EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING AND SYSTEMS THEORY FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF AN APPROACH TO TEACHING METHODOLOGISTS

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*Macarthur Institute of Higher Education*

***"Education means the enterprise of supplying the conditions which ensure growth"***

J. Dewey

### *Rationale*

It is current practice to draw heavily upon the field of educational psychology to provide the theoretical rationale for classroom teaching strategies. For this reason considerable stress has been placed upon analysing the individual, rather than the individual in the context of the group. Research carried out by the behaviourist school of thought has an important place in teacher education ***but*** current teaching practices involve skills in group dynamics. Thus the skills involved in working within a range of groups (e.g. classrooms, parent, community groups, etc.) is a vital priority for "today's teacher".

### *Overview of Themes Within the Presentation*

The session attempts to begin with clarifying a workable definition of group process within the educational framework.

The following points will then be analysed:

1. The case for the inclusion of group dynamics in teacher education is established by an analysis of the needs of public expectations of Australian schools and a review of major Australian educational reports.

2. A critique of the current teacher education models in terms of their likely ability to produce graduates able to meet the above needs and expectations.

3. An explanation of G.E.S.P ... group experiential systems process ... as a teaching method and a base for Joyce and Wells, ***"Family of Models"*** (social and personal models).

4. Forms of evaluation.

5. A possible Yr.1-3 teaching program from Primary and Secondary teacher education students.

6. Subject areas (in schools) most suited to G.E.S P.

## THEORY UNDERPINNING THE PROCESS

### *A Preferred Definition of the Term "Group Dynamics"*

There are a large number of definitions given for the term group dynamics (Lewin 47, Cartwright and Zander 68, Johnson & Johnson 75). The usage of the term group dynamics is related to the field of enquiry dedicated to achieving knowledge about the nature of groups, their stages of development and the processes of group interactions between individuals in a group, between group and larger institutions and communities (Cartwright and Zander 68). This definition is preferred since it is less value laden, is not biased toward democracy and less specific, in not being focussed solely on human relations training. An historical perspective reveals an empirical basis for theory and practice in group dynamics ... thus group dynamic skills can be evaluated and so problems located and built upon.

## EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING LINKED TO GROUP DYNAMICS

Group dynamics by itself is not a model of learning or teaching, it is a body of knowledge and skills about how people operate. Experiential learning does however provide a highly relevant educational framework within which group dynamics can be situated. John Dewey defined experiential learning as "learning by doing". It is a process of praxis! - reflection-action-reflection. From activities, knowledge is developed and integrated into abstract concepts, rules and principles. New learning is tested in personal experience and another set of goals develops. As such it provides a unique opportunity for developing and exploring the acquisition of skills.

### Basic Characteristics of Experiential Learning

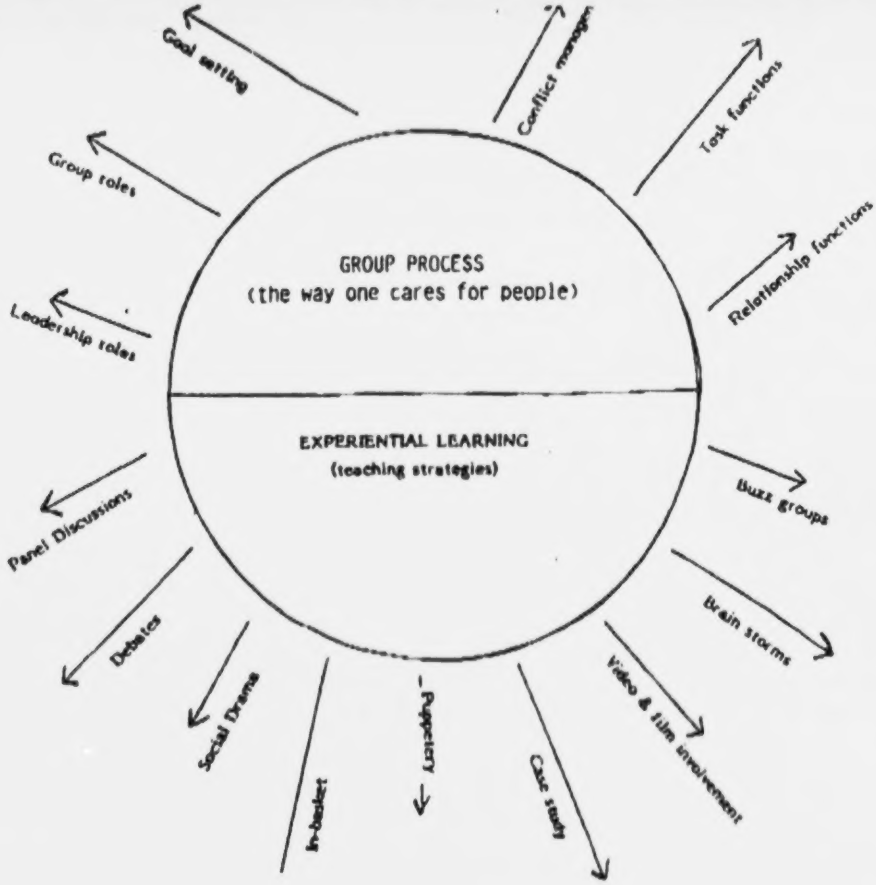
The main characteristics of experiential learning and its philosophy and skills will now be highlighted so that the next chapter will "blend" these two areas.

The central aim of experiential learning is that, one learns best by doing. Experiential learning is defined as a sequence of events with one or more identified learning objectives, requiring active involvement by participants at one or more points during the learning sessions Cantor (53:286-312) outlines the following nine propositions for modern learning:

1. *"The pupil learns only when he is interested in learning.*
2. *It is important that the pupil share in the development and management of the curriculum.*
3. *Learning is integral; genuine learning is not an additive experience but a remaking of experience.*
4. *Learning depends on wanting to learn.*
5. *An individual learns best when one is free to create personal responses in a situation.*
6. *Learning depends on knowing the answers.*
8. *Learning is largely an emotional experience.*
9. *To learn is to change."*

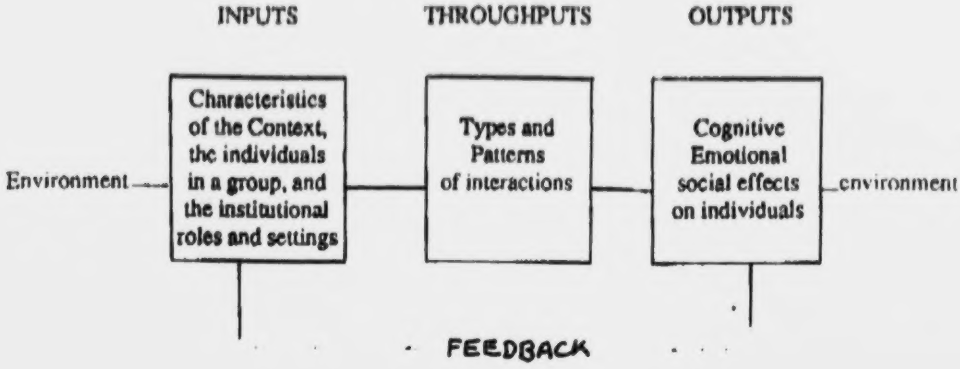
Cantor's nine points can be applied to the general qualities of group dynamics as an experiential learning process, where the emphasis is placed on engaging the individual in the experience of

Group dynamics, on its own, focuses predominantly on behaviour and social interactions. Experiential learning focuses on the content side of learning by doing. *Experiential learning linked with group process becomes a base for the link and development of people processes and learning skills.* The teacher becomes a facilitator or guide rather than an instructor or instrument (Thelan 54:34).

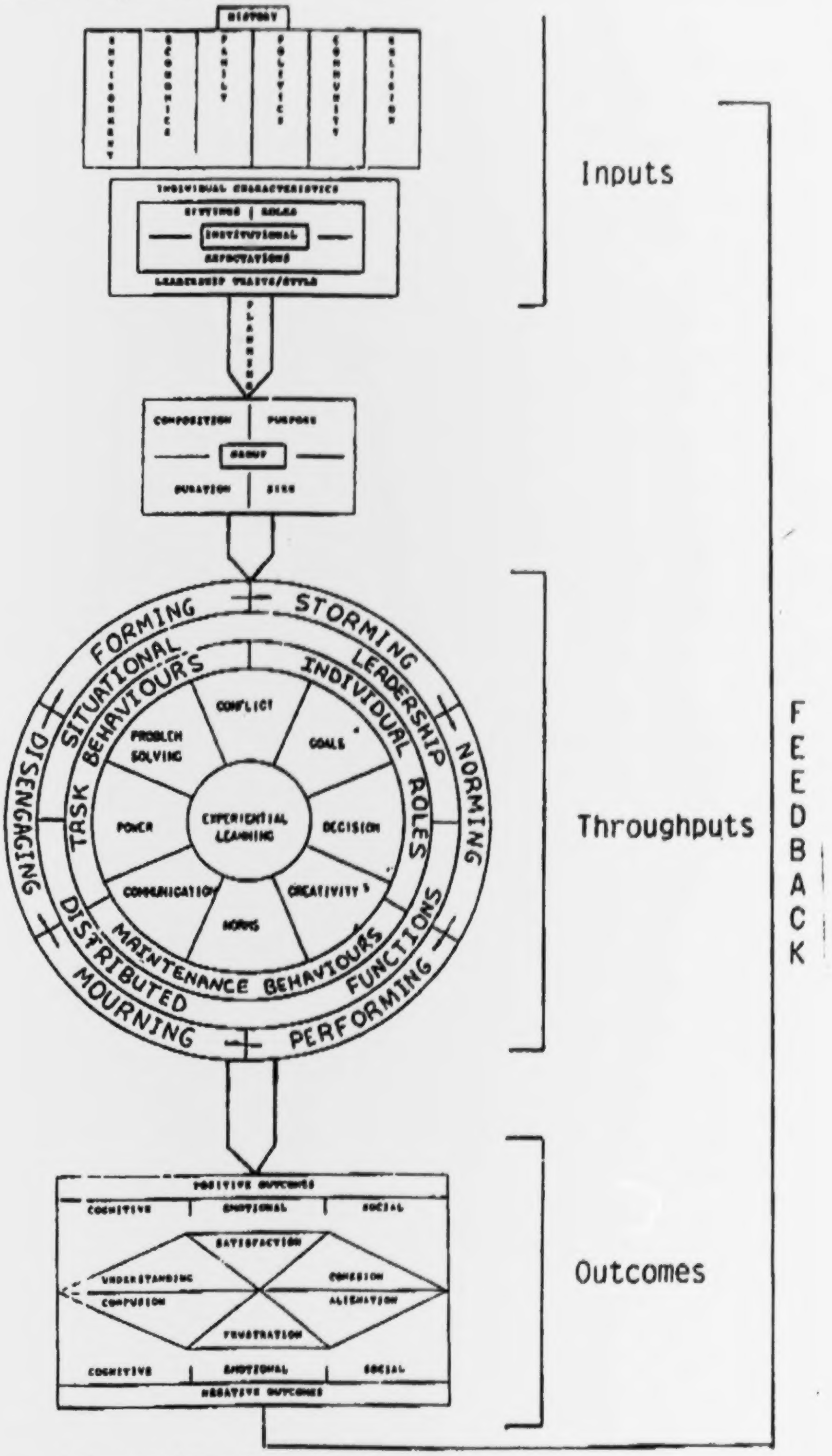

Goal setting
Conflict managem
Task functions
Group roles
Relationship functions
GROUP PROCESS
(the way one cares for people)
Leadership roles
EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING
(teaching strategies)
Buzz groups
Panel Discussions
Brain storms
Debates
Social Drama
Video & film involvement
In-basket
Puppetry
Case study

*development of an integrative framework of group dynamics for an educational setting.* An example to highlight the points is; a teacher is an agent of the school and yet is an individual. The student is both an individual and similarly has a prescribed role within the school. The individual and institution can only interact in a group. One of the major organised interactions is the class. The child as an individual in the classroom, has specific needs and yet is a group member. Thus the class or group has to conform to the school expectations and rules and yet satisfy the individual needs of students. In order to work with a group, the teacher is constantly working at the interface of the institution and the individual thus the group is seen as an open system.

The open systems approach to the study of groups begins by identifying and mapping the repeated circles of input, transformation, output and renewed input of energy. (e.g. psychological, social and physical energy). As an open system this model can be seen in the diagram below


INPUTS
THROUGHPUTS
OUTPUTS
Environment
Characteristics of the Context, the individuals in a group, and the institutional roles and settings
Types and Patterns of interactions
Cognitive Emotional social effects on individuals
environment
FEEDBACK

The input, throughput and output aspects of this model could be viewed in the below model. This diagram would need further explanation.


HISTORY
ENVIRONMENT
ECONOMICS
FAMILY
POLITICS
COMMUNITY
RELIGION
INDIVIDUAL CHARACTERISTICS
SETTINGS | ROLES
INSTITUTIONAL
EXPECTATIONS
LEADERSHIP TRAITS/STYLE
Inputs
PLANNING
COMPOSITION
PURPOSE
GROUP
DURATION
SIZE
FORMING
STORMING
NORMING
PERFORMING
MOURNING
DISENGAGING
SITUATIONAL LEADERSHIP
INDIVIDUAL ROLES
DISTRIBUTED FUNCTIONS
TASK BEHAVIOURS
MAINTENANCE BEHAVIOURS
CONFLICT
GOALS
DECISION
CREATIVITY
NORMS
COMMUNICATION
POWER
PROBLEM SOLVING
EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING
Throughputs
FEEDBACK
POSITIVE OUTCOMES
COGNITIVE
EMOTIONAL
SOCIAL
SATISFACTION
UNDERSTANDING
COHESION
CONFUSION
ALIENATION
FRUSTRATION
COGNITIVE
EMOTIONAL
SOCIAL
NEGATIVE OUTCOMES
Outcomes

*An Integrated Open System Model for Group Dynamics*

# 21.5 IMPLEMENTING WHOLE LANGUAGE AT THE TERTIARY LEVEL

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Whole language is like an onion: it is distinctive in size, shape, colour and smell yet it is not easy to break up into discrete components. Each onion layer is an integral part of the one above and below it and we find ourselves slicing chunks of onion layers rather than separating each transparent tissue. For the purposes of this paper we shall define whole language into chunks, rather than attempt to peel off the layers. Nevertheless it is hoped that an awareness of the layers shall become apparent.

The distinctive shape of whole language is that it incorporates listening, speaking, reading and writing. The relationship between these is based on an established body of research which has examined how language is learned and has applied these principles to the role of language in learning. One "chunk" is Michael Halliday's (1975) work on the functional aspects of language. Halliday highlights how learning language is "learning how to mean" through a process of social interaction. As a child learns to speak he/she has an intention "to mean" which is supported by the adult users - the language experts - in the community. Through their conversational feedback they continually give demonstrations of appropriate language usage and forms as they occur naturally in context.

Research on reading provides another "chunk" of the whole language "onion". Kenneth Goodman (1967, 1977; Gollasch, 1982) emphasises the continual construction of meaning which proficient readers do as they read, while Frank Smith (1971, 1982, 1983) underlines the crucial role background knowledge plays in our understanding of written text. Thus reading is an active process in which the knowledge inside the reader's head and the printed text together create new meanings.

As we move to the writing "chunk" it is harder to distinguish special features. Donald Graves (1978, 1983) confirms the relationship between talking, reading and writing and concludes that, from his observations, writers discover their meaning as they write. As Newman (1985) notes, the considerable interest in writing recently has resulted in an awareness of the close parallels between understanding written language and the "in-head processes" that occur as writing is produced. Students learn about reading as they write and about writing as they read. Smith

The research in language has established that certain processes occur when language is learned and used. These processes take place at all levels of development, regardless of age. A young child writing a story inspired by a book he/she has read is basically going through the same language processes as a tertiary student writing an educational psychology essay based on given readings. As readers, they have used their background knowledge to create new understandings for themselves developed from the authors' intentions. As writers, they need to communicate their meanings to an audience. Both texts have certain requirements of form (genre) which, as writers, they have to fulfill, and both writers are dependent on their reading as a way of demonstrating or modelling that genre. The obvious difference between these two language users is the degree to which they are expected to present a final, close to "perfect", product!

The principles of whole language can support our tertiary students in negotiating text meanings and in finetuning their understandings of content. Acknowledging that meaning is a social construct implies the need for collaborative learning. This sort of collaboration involves the students researching and reading a text, listening to each other's interpretation of the content, speaking to justify their point of view as well as to present their argument, and writing both informally and formally on the topic to express their understanding. Pair work maximises each individual's contribution to the negotiation of meaning and allows this to happen in a relatively risk-free environment. Students feel very supported when working with a partner. As the students are "teaching" each other the import of their reading, there is often a close match for background knowledge. It is these authors' experience that students can explain their readings appropriately yet at a level which matches their audience's understanding.

Negotiating meanings and finetuning understandings can also be realised through individual writing. Students can be asked to hold a "written conversation" with their reading material in which they comment on important ideas, pose questions to the author and note areas about which they are unclear. This interaction with the text enhances their construction of meaning and can provide a basis for small group discussions in class. These small group sharings can then be expanded to the whole class, raising issues of concern or reaching an agreed interpretation of the material. Once again, the language modes build on each other to create meaning.

Writing can also be used to ascertain background knowledge. Students can be asked to "free write" all their thoughts on a particular idea before input is given on that topic. Their thoughts can be shared and organised on the blackboard or

OHP, or can be put aside, having created a "mind-set" for the topic to be introduced.

This pre-writing can be effectively linked with reflective writing. Students can spend ten minutes writing at the end of the period reflecting on their new knowledge and comparing this with their earlier thoughts. Reflective writing can also stand alone, as a way for students to consolidate their new learning. Journals provide a useful guide for the lecturer as to the level of comprehension and as a basis for review in the following session.

The whole language principle of demonstration of appropriate forms or genres by experts is another crucial element in creating a whole language environment. In this language community the experts, of course, are us and we need to demonstrate our knowledge in some practical ways. If we return to the notion of collaboration and apply this to demonstration, we have what Rothery (1985b) calls joint construction of text. Lecturer and students discuss the elements of the particular genre and together construct an example which acts as a model for their reading and writing. Demonstrations can also be given through the distribution and discussion of written examples of the genre. These strategies support students in using the reading and writing relationship to shape their own texts.

The whole language approach to teaching and learning encourages students to play an active role in shaping their own knowledge and understanding. It provides lecturers with strategies which support students in their "learning how to mean". The integration of listening, speaking, reading and writing occurs in a community of collaboration and negotiation. Like the onion, language learning is powerful when all the layers are present simultaneously.

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# 23.1 THE NORTHERN N.S.W. CENTRE FOR PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT IN EDUCATION: A CO-OPERATIVE APPROACH TO THE PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT OF TEACHERS

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## *Abstract*

*The first section of this paper provides a summary of research and government reports on the professional development of teachers. From this review a series of eight themes is identified where there appears to be consensus on desiderata for professional development programs.*

*The second section of the paper outlines a co-operative approach to the professional development of teachers - the Northern N.S.W. Centre for Professional Development in Education - developed jointly by the NSW Education Department's North Coast Region and the Northern Rivers College of Advanced Education, with support from Armidale C.A.E., the Universities of Nebraska and New England, and the North-West Region of the NSW Education Department. The structure and activities of the Centre are described and it is evaluated against the eight criteria and desiderata identified in the earlier section of the paper.*

*A final section discusses the the Centre model as one of potentially wider applicability than its current regional base.*

The initial section of the conference paper provides a summary of selected reports and research reviews on the professional development needs of teachers.

Reports reviewed are those of the most recent National and New South Wales inquiries into teacher education (both in 1980), the joint report of the Commonwealth's Tertiary Education and Schools Commissions (1986), the Coulter and Ingvarson (1985) study of professional development for the Schools Commission, the Queensland Board of Teacher Education's "Teachers for the Twenty-First Century" Report (1987) and, by way of contrast, Fullan and Connelly's (1987) review of teacher education in the province of

Ontario, where professional development activity by teachers and institutions is already very high. Brief mention is also made of the relevant sections of two recent reviews of research on teacher education in Australia, those by Turney (1987) and Tisher (1987) and of the Commonwealth Department of Employment, Education and Training's (1987) discussion paper on Inservice Teacher Education.

From these reports and reviews eight generalisations are derived:

1. **Programs of in-service education and professional development are essential for the improvement of quality of schooling.**
2. **Current provisions are fragmented, under-funded and lacking in co-operative and collaborative arrangements.**
3. **Appropriate provisions require to be comprehensive, coherent, co-operative, and collaborative.**
4. **The tertiary institutions should be much more involved in the provision of professional development programs.**

   This involvement should be marked by a much greater flexibility than in the past. This flexibility is required in five areas:

   (a) the provision of credit in award courses for in-service activities;
   (b) the provision of new modes and media of teaching;
   (c) a willingness to involve teachers and schools in needs assessment, planning, implementation and evaluation of offerings;
   (d) an ability to devote more of their resources to the the area of professional development. This is not solely an institutional responsibility but, in the absence of government initiatives, institutions should re-examine their own practices and procedures; and
   (e) easier access to upgrading courses for two and three year trained teachers.
5. **Account must be taken of particular individual needs, both of participants and of schools and this implies their involvement in planning and implementation.**
6. **Professional development should be viewed as an incremental process and therefore follow-up and feedback are required in the context of systematically planned and wide-ranging provision.**
7. **Provision must be made for the systematic monitoring and evaluation of professional development activities.**
8. **There is a dearth of research on professional development.**

## The Northern NSW Centre for Professional Development in Education

The Northern NSW Centre for Professional Development in Education has been established as a joint initiative of Northern Rivers College of Advanced Education and the North Coast Region of the NSW Department of Education with financial support being provided by these two bodies and by the NSW Department of Education. Its major goal is:

> to improve the quality of learning within the schools of the North Coast Region through the establishment of activity-based professional development programs for staff in the Region.

Subsidiary goals of the Centre are:

> to enhance the knowledge and skills of the teaching profession in identified areas which relate directly to their perceived needs.
>
> to improve the efficiency and effectiveness of professional development programs by establishing firm co-operative arrangements between the schools and tertiary institutions.
>
> to enhance the development of effective educational policies and programs through the conduct of school-centred activity programs.
>
> to provide an opportunity for staff to upgrade their academic qualifications in areas of professional development which are relevant to their needs.
>
> to improve the flow and quality of information between the schools and tertiary institutions in the Region.

This second section of the paper outlines the background to the development of the Centre, describes the structuring of the Centre and the arrangements being made for linkages between award and non-award courses. Particular attention is paid to the nature of the formal agreement between the employing authority and the College and to the major changes in program conceptualisation required of the College.

This is followed by a brief discussion of the Centre's espoused ideology and values and by an identification of the particular weaknesses and strengths identified in the Centre's operations. Topics discussed include individualisation, needs-based programs and the question of "standards".

A final section evaluates the Centre's activities, programs and structures against the eight generalisations identified in the first section of the paper and suggests aspects of the Centre's structure which might readily serve as a model for professional development activities elsewhere in Australia.

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## 23.2 Controlling Teachers Through Inservice Education

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The rhetoric of inservice education policy in Australia has been concerned with the improvement of both education and schools. However, inservice education has provided the means whereby teachers in schools can be controlled. As Apple (1983,1986) argues, technical control has become embedded in the job of teaching itself through management strategies and the imposition of pre-packaged curriculum courses.

Inservice education can be said to serve two purposes. On the one hand, writers such as Bolam (1976) and Howey (1985) argue that inservice education contributes to the individual development of teachers for instrumental ends. On the other hand, Fox (1980) and Karmel (1973, 1985) see inservice education contributing to social policy. For Bolam (1976) the broad aims of inservice education are to enable teachers to monitor and shape their professional development towards goals shaped by reflective practice. Similarly, Howey (1985) sees the functions of staff development as including: pedagogical growth and development; understanding and discovery of self; cognitive development; theoretical development; professional development and career development. However, unlike Bolam, Howey is critical of professional development programs which emphasise the "how" of pedagogy, and sees the need for programs which focus on questions of "when", "why" and "what if". Howey (1985; p.62) makes the point that:

> the present preoccupation with pedagogy is not as likely to result in improved instruction as would changes to teacher role relationships, more attention to rounded theories...

According to Fox (1980), the purposes of inservice education are threefold: to stimulate professional development; to improve school practice and to implement social policy. With respect to this latter purpose, inservice education is seen as a means where achieving social policy is an end.

Policy discourse in Australian inservice education has as its basis the unquestioned belief in the inherent good of the continued development of teachers. It sets the agenda for how this might be achieved and what outcomes are to be expected. While some policy documents acknowledge the importance of inservice education as serving social policy ends, generally, interventions are school improvement focussed. The Commonwealth Schools Commission Reports emphasise the need for school focussed inservice education. Karmel (1985) argues that inservice education provisions served many purposes. These include:

> ... improvements in the area of skill and knowledge seen to be deficient; increasing knowledge in particular subject areas; developing new teaching approaches to the needs of particular groups of students and upgrading qualifications. (p. 125)

The translation of policy documents by inservice providers and teachers into practice is based on highly pragmatic criteria, and is concerned with the identification and application of practical solutions to practical problems within a limited time frame, usually no longer than one year. The `logic' informing inservice at the state level is highly functional, and despite its rhetoric, serves to maintain the status quo regarding educational change. In other words, inservice education policy and practice is informed by functionalist assumptions.

## The Study

In 1986 the authors were commissioned to identify practices and procedures conducted under the auspices of the Queensland Inservice Education Committee (QINSEC). The researchers interviewed stakeholders, providers and recipients of inservice education programs funded by QINSEC in all 10 education regions and commissioned reports on specific issues such as the education of girls, parent participation, education centres, evaluation of programs among others. Despite the uncertainty at the time, our data shows a fairly positive picture of inservice education in Queensland in the mid 1980's.

In order to substantiate our claim that inservice education has the potential to control teachers we examine the organization and design of programs conducted in Queensland (Sachs and Logan, 1987). Programs in Queensland are either school initiated or system initiated. School initiated activities addressed issues of immediate concern to a school or individual. System initiated programs are designed to either develop specific skills and competencies or to retrain teachers for specified roles. Programs studied followed two main designs. There are programs based on participants mastering and applying a set of prescribed knowledge, legitimised by empirical research and/or past practice. Competencies taught during course sessions are applied by the participants in their normal work situation, with these performances the subject of review in the next course session. A characteristic of the second type of program design is self-directed exploration to develop a context specific course of action.

## Discussion

The issues of 'practicality' and 'relevance' require further interpretation as they contribute to the development of instrumental ideologies. These ideologies emphasise a technocratic approach by both providers and consumers of inservice education because pragmatic and instrumental factors provide the basis for justifying the content of educational programs. Giroux (1985, p.377) argues that such an emphasis is based on the assumption that 'the standardization of school knowledge (is) in the interest of managing and controlling it'. A consequence of such ideologies is that much of the content of inservice education programs have as their basis, "that" and "how" knowledge. "That" knowledge refers to factual information, while "how" knowledge is directed toward skills (Apple and Teitelbaum, 1986). By limiting the content of inservice education programs to such knowledge, teachers' experiential knowledge and immediate needs become the dominant organizing design principle. By relying on this kind of knowledge, teachers and inservice education providers reproduce the ethos that 'experience counts and theory doesn't (Hargreaves, 1984). Consequently, as Giroux (1985, p.377) argues, 'critical, intellectual work is devalued on the part of teachers for the primacy of practical considerations'. By constantly catering for teachers' practical predelictions, in order for programs to be judged as successful, inservice educators are contributing, either consciously or unconsciously, to the technical control of teachers. With the imposition of centralized control and authority, certain skills are removed from teachers' professional repertoire. Indeed, skills that have practical application are fostered, while others are lost (Apple and Teitelbaum, 1986).

Several consequences follow from centralized control and authority on teachers. Skills that were once central to their job are no longer necessary (Apple, 1983). As Apple and Teitelbaum (1986, p.180) argue, 'the very things that make teaching a professional activity - the control of one's expertise and time - are also dissipated'. Accordingly, teacher autonomy is encroached upon with the implementation of pre-packaged staff development programs. Such programs have the potential to be limited to technocratic and instrumental rationalities judged on the basis of the degree to which they conform to practical imperatives and relevance. While at one level it may be said that centralised control contributes to the deskilling of teachers, by taking decision making control out of their hands, Apple (1983,1986) argues teachers are also being reskilled with the substitution of skills and ideological visions of management. Apple (1983, p.151) makes the point that 'as teachers lose control of curricular and pedagogic skills to large publishing houses, these skills are replaced by techniques for better controlling students'. Giroux (1985, p.378) refers to these as 'management pedagogies where knowledge is broken down into discrete parts, standardized for easier management and consumption and measure through predefined form of assessment'. Through deskilling teachers' professional role is being transformed into that of technician, White (1983) and Giroux (1985) refer to this as proletarianization of teacher work.

In the case of teachers, Giroux (1985) maintains that there has been a tendency to reduce teachers to the status of skilled technicians, who are more concerned with managing and implementing curricular rather than reflecting on how appropriate these are for particular pedagogical concerns. Teaching remains at the level of solving immediate problems with limited solutions. There is little attempt to acknowledge and understand causal considerations, to challenge practice, rather emphasis is placed on the application of the 'known' with teachers being concerned with 'probability' instead of examining and hypothesising about 'possibility'.

## Reflective Practice

Professional development is often presented, and perceived by teachers, as a way to correct a deficit rather than providing experiences for professional growth and skill development. Inservice activity often focuses solely on the teacher as being responsible for improving instruction without sufficient attention to organisational and social factors. In order to move beyond merely instrumental ends, inservice education needs to incorporate aspects of critical reflection. The purpose of reflection is to increase the repertoire of practices available to the teacher. The reflective process entails the active, persistent consideration of beliefs and practices in the light of the grounds that support them and their consequences (Zeichner and Liston 1987). The application of this process may be of three orders, technical, practical and critical (Van Manen 1977). The consequence of developing reflective teachers is twofold. First, reflective teachers are better able to be both responsible and responsive within the constraints of their work place. Second, reflective teachers are self rather than other directed and less succeptible to control by technicist assumptions and practice.

Under the rhetoric of 'professional development' the reality has been the maintenance of the status quo. Rather than being intellectually challenging, providers of inservice education have reproduced current practice by catering for teachers' preoccupation with 'practicality' and 'relevance'. Programs are justified on the basis of technocratic rationalities and functionalist assumptions, and consequently, teachers' professional knowledge is being controlled and deskilled. Rather than developing reflective practitioners, inservice education in its current form encourages the development of teachers who see their world in terms of instrumental ends.

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# 23.3 PERSONAL AND INSTITUTIONAL INFLUENCES ON BEGINNING TEACHERS' CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT PERSPECTIVES

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## CONTEXT OF THE INVESTIGATION

The current investigation into the changing perspectives of four young student-teachers in their transition from university to secondary schools used interpretive inquiry methods of interview and classroom observations for data collection, and progressive analysis of selected themes (Martinez, 1987).

All four teachers were in their early twenties and had just successfully completed their Bachelor of Education degrees at a provincial university. I had worked closely with the informants as their tutor in the third year of their degree course, and had maintained friendly, informal contact with them during their last pre-service year on our small campus. They had always impressed me with their richly developed and articulated perspectives on a range of education issues, and it was the prospect of that richness rather than any quest for generalizability or predictability that prompted this research. However, it must be conceded that one could reasonably expect to find a direct relationship between teacher resistance and degree of development of individual philosophy.

These four young teachers have appeared to welcome our contact as rare opportunities for organized reflection time during their hectic first professional year, and have read and edited my initial biographic profiles of them, which have formed the basis of this analysis, and a previous analysis (Martinez, 1987).

Their initial appointments have been to three very different school contexts. Hannah was appointed to a brand new, beautifully-equipped outer-suburban State High School; Patricia is a Roman Catholic Good Samaritan nun working in a small, inner-suburban all-girls' college; Brian and Melody were both appointed to a large, twenty-year-old State High school in a dormitory suburb.

## LITERATURE CONTEXT

Classroom management, and the problems associated with it, appear as a dominant theme in the research on student-teachers and beginning teachers (e.g., Fuller, 1969, Ryan, 1970, Morow and Lane, 1988). Many such studies, particularly those with a focus on teacher needs and concerns, have concentrated almost exclusively on the role of the teacher. A second strand of research has broadened the focus to include consideration of classroom dynamics, the institutional context of the school, and wider socio-political factors influencing teacher-student relationships (e.g., Connell, 1985, Goodman, 1985, Zeichner, 1986, Britzman, 1986).

Goodman's (1985) research into student-teacher field experience and the institutional forces of social control also reveals the dominance of issues of management:

> Students spent much of their time thinking about management techniques to help them get their pupils through lessons without disturbance. Finding discipline techniques that work was often the topic of seminar discussions. No issue seemed more important to students than management and control (p. 25).

Like Goodman (1985), Zeichner (1986), and Smith and Zantiotis (in press), Britzman (1986) is critical of this "what works" technicist approach to teacher education as being mindlessly reproductive: "What works in the classroom is usually congruent with bureaucratic expectations and norms (p.447)."

Britzman highlights the complexities of these issues when she argues that both personal and institutional biographies, as well as social structure contribute to the making of the teacher. A critical evaluation of the influence of these three factors on teachers' classroom management perspectives provides the framework for this discussion.

## FINDINGS

Length restrictions have limited the supporting empirical evidence to a minimal selection highlighting the major theoretical issues. Whilst most of the examples cited were emic to the informants - either identified by them during interview, or readily observable in their classrooms, these merge at times with another set of etic variables which appeared to me to be strongly affecting classroom conditions and practices. (The relationship between these emic and etic sets warrants further consideration at the theoretical and methodological levels.)

Certainly, the personal and institutional biographies of the four informants of this study appear to have influenced their perspectives on classroom management. Hannah, who had spent all her school days in all-girl, private schools, admitted to feeling "panicky" during her brief prac experience in a state school where she perceived that general discipline, standard of uniform, teacher and parent accountability were of a much lower order than in private schools. Melody acknowledged that she had not been the perfect student at school, and so when she was appointed to the state high school that she had herself attended, she appeared totally familiar with the sorts of misbehaviour that she frequently met in her five slow-learner classes. Melody believed that all practice should be informed by theory, and so her university course had been instrumental in determining her classroom approaches of thorough planning, activity-based learning, and calm, quiet management that modelled caring and personal self-control.

"Personal and institutional biographies" are such all-encompassing terms that they can be interpreted to include this influence of the content of university courses. The term can also incorporate the fact that for all four informants classroom management perspectives, rather than being discrete, are imbedded within broader personal theoretical frameworks such as teachers' attitudes to learning and to adolescents, and their general philosophies of education and society.

Patricia revealed an interesting example of the concourse of these factors. Her own schooling had been in all catholic girls' schools. She had hated the structure of it, the regime of the bell; and had found pleasure only in her final year of schooling when a liberal principal had allowed her freedom. At university, she had been deeply affected by her readings in history curriculum, in philosophy (particularly liberation philosophy), and in sociology. A complicating factor was a personal liking to work in order, of refusing to tolerate "bedlam". Added to this was a firm belief in the negotiability of knowledge, a radical commitment to faith, and a deep caring concern for adolescents to be masters of their own destinies - to control the world rather than be victims of it. In her classrooms, she insisted on order and silence during individual work times. She gave frequent, personal attention to girls, inquiring into their health, their families, and their work. She always revealed the sources of the information she was presenting, and encouraged the girls to do their own research and to offer alternative explanation to hers. Hence, whilst one could view her teaching practices as an illustration of the influence of personal and institutional biographies, one could also interpret them as a neat rational correspondence to her developed theory of teaching (which may in fact be seen as the end-product of Britzman's "personal and institutional biographies".)

Britzman's notion of social structure is again such a wide term as to allow for a diversity of factors operating at a range of levels. For example, Connell (1985) discussed the gender regime within the wider society and its powerful influence on teachers' work, and it is plausible to interpret some of current data in terms of this factor. Connell maintained that the authoritarian role is more easily adopted by males in our society and more accepted in males by students; conversely, the caring role is seen to be more appropriate for women teachers to adopt, and for students to expect in women. Whilst Brian and Melody were both working in the same school, Brian's approach to management in the junior school was marked by what he described as a "stern, huff and puff" style that matched the more authoritarian stereotype suggested by Connell. The data is however extremely varied. Brian was personable and relaxed with the senior students (perhaps the gender-related pleasure that the late adolescent girls found in this handsome young male teacher may be seen as a contributing factor). Patricia combined her caring with a strong authoritarian stand with respect to behaviour. Hannah, whose institutional biography (all-girls' schools) had led her to feel uncomfortable about dealing with boys, now appeared to use her femaleness to flirt with the young boys in her classes to help establish the close personal rapport that she perceived to be the base of all good teaching. Melody constantly displayed a patient, loving, interested disposition that could be interpreted as our society's view of mother, and which was in keeping with her views of the teacher as an important model, and with her commitment to slow learners.

At the widest social structural level there is the influence of the political distribution of the education dollar, which revealed itself in ugly, unpainted, battered rooms with graffiti-covered desks and broken chairs in the older state high school, in contrast with clean, painted, carpeted rooms with decorator curtains, pot plants and inter-coms in the private school. Students themselves appeared to be from the different socio-economic worlds identified in Australian state and private schools by Connell, Ashenden, Kessler and Dowsett (1982). This implies different sets of student expectations of teacher authority and of student compliance and resistance, as well as differing sets of student attitudes to the value of schooling. These differences present teachers with very different classroom management conditions.

As indicated above, Hannah had anticipated and articulated these inter-systemic differences, and she was the only one of the four graduates to predict that management might be a problem for her in her early teaching. She was also the only informant to move between systems from her student schooling to her career as a teacher, and this lack of familiarity may be a significant factor in her initial uneasiness about discipline. It must be added that this slight uneasiness was not typical of Hannah's approach to teaching; the overwhelming impression was of her bubbling enthusiasm and excitement as she determined to make "an adventure" of her entry into the foreign system.

At the school system level and at the individual school level, institutional policies such as streaming of classes and allocation of classes to first year teachers have important consequences. Melody had requested slow learners because of her personal interest in them, and her reward was that five of her six classes in her first year were slow learners. Melody, Brian and Hannah all had identified subject masters' on-the-spot suggestions as the most helpful for classroom management problems. Hannah also knew, from observations during her prac experience in a state school, that this could be a problem when it came to assessment by these same teachers under the existing state system of promotion.

## SUMMARY AND IMPLICATIONS

The broad factors which Britzman identified as affecting teacher development generally - personal and institutional biographies, and social structure - were also significant influences on the classroom management practices of the four beginning teachers involved in this research.

There are at least two interpretations to be made of the significance of these findings for teacher education programs. The first is that the nature of teaching and schools is given and fixed, and that teachers should be "trained" to fit the institutional contexts of teaching. Hirst (1985, p.4) clearly asserts this position:

> Professional training is training for a job, and the
> conditions of that job are laid down ... I'm not preparing
> future teachers for a vocation ... I'm preparing [them]
> to do the prescribed job.

Hirst's resounding exhortation is to provide prospective teachers with "a body of practical principles", and not "a lot of theory".

The current research makes it clear that the realities of classroom conditions and availability of resources, of institutional assessment of teachers, of wider social factors such as socio-economic status of parents do influence teachers' classroom management processes.

However, what is also apparent from this research is that beginning teachers are influenced not only by those external givens but also by their personal school experiences, along with the theories they encounter during their university preparation. In this way this research supports the alternative critical view of teacher education adopted by Goodman (1985), Zeichner and Tabachnick (1985), and Shor (1986). There the function of teacher education becomes not one of "training" prospective "recruits" to function in pre-determined ways, but rather of developing critical reflective professionals. In order to achieve this professionalism that justifies pratice and considers consequences, student-teachers must have demonstrated for them the value of theory, and be afforded opportunities to develop a personal critical philosophy of education. To achieve this, they are likely to need to be informed in curriculum and foundations theory, especially that which is itself critically reflective.

What is clear is that there exists a complicated web of factors influencing teachers' practice, ranging from the personal to the systemic. What is also clear is that interpretive approaches provide the research methodologies to reveal the idiosyncracies of the individual teachers, the contexts and the dynamic interactions between them.

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23.4

# THE ASSISTANT TEACHER PROGRAMME: AN EVALUATION

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## Introduction

Since 1986 the Faculty of Education has conducted an extended ten week practicum called the Assistant Teacher Programme (ATP) as the final Field Experience for the Diploma of Teaching, ECE and Primary students, and in 1987 included the students in the Bachelor of Education (Secondary) programme.

In order to gauge the acceptance of this Field Experience questionnaires were distributed to all participants immediately after the ATP in October 1987. The survey sought to

a) determine the achievement of the objectives for the ATP as stated in the booklet supplied to all participants
b gauge the reaction to the format of the ATP
c) examine the supervision and feedback supplied to the students
d) determine respondents' attitudes to the ATP
e) allow opportunities for advantages, disadvantages and changes to be stated.

Respondents were as provided in Table 1, below, with possible respondents shown in brackets.

Table 1: ATP Respondents.

| | ECE | Primary | Secondary | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Students | 31 (36) | 20 (40) | 15 (27) | 65 (103) |
| Co-op. teachers | 24 (36) | 43 (80) | 27 (27) | 94 (143) |
| Princ./Co-ordinators | 5 (23) | 24 (36) | 2 (16) | 31 (75) |
| Supervisors | 5 (7) | 2 (9) | 5 (12) | 12 (28) |
| Totals | 65 (108) | 89 (165) | 48 (82) | 202 (349) |

## Objectives for the ATP.

The questionnaire provided opportunities to comment on the twenty two objectives of the ATP. These included such aspects as classroom management techniques, developing children's interests, handling of class routines, developing teaching skills to provide for children's needs and abilities, programming , evaluating, and establishing relations with staff.

Using a 5 point scale from 1-'not at all' to 5-'a great deal' respondents rated all but one of these items at a mean of 3.7 or better, with the majority(the mode) at 4.0 or above. This has been interpreted as a clear perception of the majority of respondents that the objectives set for the ATP were met to a quite high degree ('a lot' or better).

The item which had least support from respondents (Mn 3.0;mode 3.0) concerned the establishment of interaction/relationships with parents. Given the limited opportunities for parent contact afforded by the nature o the student teacher's role this is not surprising.

## Format of the programme

This section of the survey examined how the amount of teaching the student was required to do impacted on

i. the student's developing skills
ii. the student's emerging confidence
iii. the co-operation with the co-operating teacher
iv. the student's programming for the class
v. the student's introduction to the placement
vi. the student's transition to the next class
vii. the student's exit from the ATP.

Using the scale of 1-'not at all' to 5-'a great deal' there was evidence that the format of required teaching strongly supported the majority of these dimensions (Items i to v,above) with only minimal differences between ECE, Primary and Secondary respondents. There was marginally less support for the item concerning the Primary student's transition to the next class. This may have been due to a confusion which arose when some Primary students doubled their teaching load during the transition period when the load should have been minimized.

### Duration of the programme

Respondents indicated general strong support for the duration (10 weeks) of the ATP. On a five point scale of 1 -'far too short' to 5 - 'far too long' a mean of 2.94 (mode 3.0) shows a slight tendency for the ATP to be considered a little 'short' for some students, however 85% of respondent: rated this item at 3 -'just right'.

### Placement of ATP

The placement of the ATP in the 3rd Term of the school year was supported as 'satisfactory' or better by 98% of respondents with only 4 respondents rating this as 'unsatisfactory'.

Many respondents supported the placement as being a time by which children were settled, receptive to changes, established in their routines whilst it was stated to be a convenient period for the school.

### Relevance to own class

Of all the respondents to the question 'How revelant to actually havin their own class is the ATP for a student teacher?' 98% replied that it was relevant, with two groups stating that it was either 'very relevant'(54%) o 'completely relevant'(24%)

Many respondents commented on this question, noting that the relevance was as close to reality as the circumstances would allow. Notable features affecting the quality of the relevance were the difficulty of the co-operating teacher to completely withdraw, the impact of the co-operating teacher's established routines and philosophy, and his or her ability to provide independence for the student.

### Feedback and supervision

The survey examined the feedback and supervision provided to the student. In particular it surveyed

i. the amount and quality of the feedback the student received
ii. the supervisory functions perceived for personnel involved
iii. the amount of time devoted to the student for feedback
iv. the timing and number of supervisory visits, and
v. the quality of written information and report forms.

### Feedback

The amount of feedback received from the co-operating teacher and both supervisors was rated by 88% of respondents as either 'a lot' or 'a great deal'. Perhaps, more importantly, was the finding that students(90%) rated their feedback from these three persons as 'satisfactory' or better.

The amount of feedback students received from the principal/ co-ordinator was less than for the other supervisory personnel although 75% of respondents considered it to be 'satisfactory' or better. In view of the role required of the principal/co-ordinators this finding is not surprising

### Main supervisory function

Respondents were asked to rate the co-operating teacher, both supervisors and the principal/co-ordinator in terms of their roles to 'to assess, counsel, direct or encourage'. Whilst there was clear support for the major roles of both supervisors to firstly, 'assess' and secondly 'to counsel', it was of interest that co-operating teachers were seen to 'counsel, direct and encourage' with only 8% of respondents rating their function to 'assess'. Similarly, admitting the undefined role of the principal/co-ordinator in the ATP, the majority of those who responded saw his/her role to 'encourage'with 'assess' and 'counsel' as minor roles.

Comments indicated that this was a difficult question to answer. It wa clear that the stage of the student's development and the demands of the student's teaching role required different functions.

### Supervision

The average daily amount of time which co-operating teachers spent discussing lessons with students was seen by 79% of respondents as '10-20 mins'or more, with most co-operating teachers in the '10 -20 mins' category The comments indicated that there were periods when considerable time was varied to meet the particular needs of the students.

On their supervisory visits, the majority of both supervisors One and Two were credited with discussing their students' lessons for more than 10 minutes. Of interest were the 10% of respondents who stated that supervisor spent less that 10 minutes discussing their lessons with students. It was indicated that many supervisors spent adequate time elaborating their notes of observed lessons however other student respondents indicated that more time could have been spent in this activity.

The total time the principal/co-ordinator spent discussing lessons was seen by 72% of respondents as less than 20 minutes, with most rating this item as '0-10 mins'.

The timing of both supervisors' visits was rated as 'satisfactory' or better by more than 93% of respondents, and was reflected in comments received. It was clear from other comments that there were some communication problems, disruptions to schedules caused by school re-organizations, times were changed to suit supervisors' schedules, and supervisors sometimes appeared without prior warning.

The number of visits by supervisors was seen as 'satisfactory' or better by 89% of respondents. It was clearly indicated that because of the supervisor's impact on the assessment grades there should be more visits, and of longer duration.

### Booklet of information

The majority(94%) of respondents rated the information supplied in the booklet as 'satisfactory' or better however small groups of students, co - operating teachers and principal/co-ordinators, rated the booklet as 'less than satisfactory'. Comments about the booklet indicated

a) that it gave good indication of expectations and explained procedures, but
b) that it was too detailed for busy teachers to become familiar with easily, and could be condensed,
c) that some procedures (transition week) and teaching loading and programming requirements were not clear enough or wrong, and
d) that it was neither read nor adhered to by the co - operating teacher.

### Evaluation Forms

Reaction to the formative and summative evaluation forms used for the ATP was mixed. The ratings indicate that the majority (91%) considered the forms 'satisfactory' or better, and only 9% of respondents considered them 'unsatisfactory' or 'most unsatisfactory'.

General comments indicate that some respondents found the Diagnostic Form a little difficult to understand, considered it somewhat too long, complicated, repetitious and difficult to use.

### Attitude to ATP

Respondents' attitudes to the ATP as the culminating experience in a pre-service teacher education programme were clearly favourable. 94% of al respondents rated their attitude as 'positive' or 'very positive' whilst only one ECE student and one Primary student rated their attitudes as 'negative'.

### Comparison with previous programme

When the ATP was compared with the practicum period of 6 weeks duratio used in previous years there was overwhelming support (95%) that the ATP wa either 'superior' or 'very superior'.

Respondents commented that the longer ATP provided the time to discuss issues; for the student to use alternative strategies; to pace him/herself in a more realistic situation; to review and consolidate skills; and to become 'one of the staff'. Others stated that 'the 6 weeks was not long enough for students to gain confidence'.

### Strengths/advantages

More that 95% of respondents listed one or more strengths. Predominant features of the ATP which were strongly supported included the length of time which provided practical development and consolidation of skills, the development of a realistic perception of teaching, the opportunity to be involved as a staff member, with responsibility for a class, the experience which a whole term provided with programming, planning, continuity of teaching, and evaluating, and the constant support and advice from co-operative teachers. Additional advantages commented upon included the prolonged interaction with pupils, the development of a professional role and the opportunity for students to develop maturity.

### Weaknesses/disadvantages

This section of the survey drew far fewer comments that did the strengths/advantages. The areas which attracted most comments were the demands made on the students, the problems arising if a weak student was assigned, the exhausting demands for written work, the lack of sufficient time for adequate development, and supervision and organizational problems.

### Student preparedness

The majority of responses to this item stated that students were well prepared. Areas isolated included classroom management and general classroo handling - including talking to parents; adminstrative procedures; the use of teaching aids, strategies and computers; objective writing and programming; and evaluation and record-keeping.

### Changes to ATP

Responses to this section were provided by approximately half the respondents(55%) with the majority of these(27%) stating that no changes should be made. The major recommendation concerned the supervision of students, specifically to include more discussion between supervisors and encouragement for students. Changes to the format of the programme were suggested although no consistent recommendation emerged,e.g.,to split the practicum into two equal periods with a week's break between the periods. As well, suggestions were given to prepare the student better for the ATP b including more prior visits to the schools, and for more student teaching.

The final section of the questionnaire called for additional comments however only one of the issues cited had not been raised previously. This concerned the possibility of a week free of classes before students on ATP return to regular classroom sessions.

The majority (30%) of comments were supportive of the ATP. They covere such issues as the quality and attitudes of the students, the organization of the practicum, its influence on the personal development of students, th relationships among personnel, and the practical orientation of the ATP.

### Conclusion

This evaluation of the ATP concludes that this form of practicum has been accepted by the majority of respondents as a suitable final student teaching experience for the Diploma of Teaching and Bachelor of Education programmes. Information provided by this evaluation should allow the adjustment necessary to sustain the impetus of its recent initiation.

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# Post Crisis Intervention Alliance - A Coalition of Educators, Scientists and Regional Industry Aimed At Improving Science Education

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Austin Peay State University and the Clarksville-Montgomery county Schools are jointly seeking support from the BellSouth Foundation to implement a teacher-training model, recognized in 1985 by the Search for Excellence in Preservice Education Committee of the National Science Teachers Association as one of seven national exemplary programs. Approximately $160,000 in funding is needed for the installation of a model laboratory, teacher training, and dissemination. Financial support for the project from the University, the Tennessee State Department of Education, and Clarksville-Montgomery County Schools demonstrate the level of commitment from all parties involved.

The 1983 national report "A Nation at Risk" identified the failure to produce scientifically literate individuals as the single most crucial problem in our national educational system. In spite of the great demand for expertise in science and technology, teachers actually devote very little time to science instruction. Local assessments of Austin Peay State University's seven county service area paralleled the findings of a 1985 national survey which showed that the average time spent daily on science instruction in elementary schools was between 7.5 and 15 minutes.

This project will improve teacher training and science teaching by addressing the assessed needs and concerns of university students and classroom teachers, including lack of equipment and supplies, insecurities about knowledge and content, and unfamiliarity with strategies for effective teaching. The model pioneers the "rethinking of science education" for elementary students and re-establishes science as the keystone of the liberal arts curriculum in preparing individuals for the twenty-first century. It involves the teaching of content, the development of positive attitudes toward science and technology, the development of scientific process skills, and the teaching of rational and creative thinking.

The physical facilities of the model laboratory include an arboretum; mini-zoo and museum; student activity centers for chemistry, functional physics, and electrical and mechanical investigations; as well as a telecommunications theatrics planetarium, telecommunications/computer center, and tropical rainforest terrarium habitat. It provides an ideal science learning environment and enrichment experience for the elementary student; its design is cost-effective to facilitate replication; and the construction skills required for its installation will be available to most schools through parent volunteers.

With the Science Center Model, children will become problem solvers and develop inventive minds by having the opportunity to apply what they learn, to encounter new situations, and to use their knowledge to solve problems through active involvement. The Science Center laboratory will also serve as a Science Education Training Center. During the project year, education students from the University will collaborate with classroom teachers at the host school through integrated training activities designed to emphasize science content, demonstrate and examine methodology of teaching, and examine the use of technology in teaching. The model laboratory and Training Center will serve as a prototype for schools throughout the nation.

Immediate goals include assessment of training needs of teachers in the APSU service area, and the identification and training of a cadre of nine Team Leader teachers who will, in turn, train their colleagues in the Science Center concept. Long-range goals include dissemination of the laboratory design and training techniques; development of instructional materials, including a text on science teaching methods; and the development of technological presentations that can be disseminated regionally and nationally.

Telecommunications productions and research in the fields of student learning and teaching effectiveness will be disseminated through the regional Teachers Center Network to one hundred other teacher centers throughout the nation. Other dissemination activities will include a regional symposium, the submission of articles to professional journals and the development of instructional materials.

The chance for long-range success and institutionalization of the project are greatly enhanced by its six-year history of operation as a pilot project endorsed by the Clarksville-Montgomery County Schools, Austin Peay State University and the Tennessee State Department of Education. Dr. Rebecca Slayden-McMahan, the Project Director, was given the Tennessee outstanding Achievement Award for 1985 by Governor Lamar Alexander. She presented the model at NSTA's National Conference in 1985; and it was published in the 1986 issue of The Science Teacher, and as a chapter of NSTA's Monograph - Focus on Excellence in 1987.

Elementary students' progress will be measured with the Survey of School Attitudes Instrument (Harcourt Brace), the Improved Process Skills Assessment Instrument (Second International Science Study - Dr. Rodney Boran), and the Stanford Metropolitan Achievement Test. Classroom teachers will be evaluated by the NSTA Self-Assessment Checklist for Teachers of Science. University students will be evaluated by both the Self-Assessment Checklist for Teachers of Science and the ACT-COMP subtest in science.

The Slayden-McMahan Model of teacher training and science education incorporates aspects of BellSouth's elementary/secondary education and higher education program priorities. The model focuses on K-8 student motivation and performance levels, and on the teaching of rational and creative thinking to children and adolescents as a skill preparatory to adult life. It demonstrates a partnership among the university, local schools, state department of education and regional industry.

The establishment of a Regional Training Center Laboratory for the Middle Tennessee area will produce better prepared university students and retrain and motivate classroom teachers. Research on science teaching and student learning, and widescale dissemination of the model will result. The establishment of a regional planning council, consisting of BellSouth, the University, the State Department of Education, and the local schools, will increase communication and collaboration between schools and regional industry and provide leadership to focus attention on the significance of science and technology education.

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23.5.2

# A Collaboration of Efforts of Higher Education, Public Schools and a Private Agency on Behalf of Elementary Teacher Education: A Case in Point

by

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The Department of Elementary Education at Brigham Young University - Hawaii has implemented successful research findings from the public school sector and the private sector in its teacher education program. Amidst the controversy that teacher education programs do not prepare students for the "real world" of teaching, the program changes at BYU-H have already begun receiving attention from local public school personnel.

Research on effective teaching was synthesized and presented in a report to North Carolina school officials in 1983 (The Group for the Study of Effective Teaching 1983). The report yielded 28 specific practices within five major functions (Holdzkom 1987). This research synthesis on effective teaching practices was evaluated by the elementary education faculty at BYU-H. As a result, elementary education majors learn and practice these behaviors in their classes, practicum and student teaching experience.

The 28 teaching practices and five major functions that originated in the report to North Carolina school officials (Holdzkom 1987) were modified by the BYU-H Elementary Education faculty slightly. The instrument being used by BYU-H is outlined below:

A. Management of Instructional Time
    1. Has materials, supplies and equipment ready at the start of the lesson
    2. Gets the class started quickly
    3. Gets students on-task quickly
    4. Maintains a high level of student time-on-task

B. Management of Student Behavior
    1. Established rules and procedures to govern handling of routine matters
    2. Established rules and procedures to govern student verbal participation

3. Established rules and procedures to govern student movement in classroom during activities
4. Monitors behavior of all students during activities/transitions
5. Stops inappropriate behavior promptly/consistently and maintains dignity of student

C. Instructional Presentation
1. Lesson Plan
    a. Focus and/or Review
    b. Statement of Objective
    c. Instruction/Activity
    d. Guided Practice
    e. Independent Practice
    f. Closure
2. Speaks fluently and precisely
3. Concepts/language understandable to students
4. Examples/demonstrations relevant
5. Students handle tasks with high rate of success
6. Students answer questions with high rate of success
7. Lesson at appropriately brisk pace, slowing only when necessary
8. Transitions between lessons/activities efficient and smooth
9. Assignments are clear

D. Instructional Monitoring of Student Performance
1. Maintains clear, firm and reasonable work standards/due dates
2. Circulates during classwork to check students' performance
3. Routinely uses oral, written and other work products to check progress
4. Poses questions clearly and one at a time

E. Instructional Feedback
1. Provides feedback on correctness/incorrectness of in-class work to encourage growth
2. Provides prompt feedback on out-of-class work
3. Affirms a correct oral response and moves on
4. Provides sustaining feedback after incorrect response or no response

In addition to the five functions previously cited, three additional functions were cited in the North Carolina report (Holdzkom 1987). The three additional functions are non-observable, meaning an individual lesson would not provide evidence of the teacher's performance regarding those functions. However, over the year's duration, the teacher would have evidences to support the functions. Those three non-observable functions and related practices as adopted by the BYU-H Elementary Education faculty are:

F. Facilitating Instruction
   1. Instructional plan is compatible with the school and system-wide curricular goals
   2. Diagnostic information from test/other assessment procedures used
   3. Maintains accurate records
   4. Has instructional plan that matches/aligns objectives, learning strategies, assessment and student needs at the appropriate level
   5. Uses available human and material resources

G. Interacting Within the Educational Environment
   1. Treats all students in a fair and equitable manner
   2. Interacts effectively with students, co-workers, parents, and community

H. Performing Non-Instructional Duties
   1. Carries out non-instructional duties
   2. Adheres to established laws, policies, rules, and regulations
   3. Follows a plan for professional development and demonstrates evidence of growth

In addition to the effective teaching research and its relationship to teacher evaluation, the Brigham Young University - Hawaii Elementary Education faculty have implemented the use of a private sector reading instruction program. The reading program is a developer/demonstrator project approved by the U. S. Department of Education. The program is an Informal Reading Inventory and a series of fifteen Teacher Training Textbooks/Workbooks published by Reid and Associates of the Exemplary Center for Reading Instruction (ECRI). Titles of the textbooks/workbooks are:

1. Teaching Scheduling and Record Keeping
2. Teaching Creative Comprehension (Oral, Silent, Listeing)
3. Teaching Penmanship, Spelling and Proofing Skills
4. Teaching Literal and Inferential Comprehension (Oral, Silent, Listening)
5. Teaching Critical Comprehension Skills (Oral, Silent, Listening)
6. Teaching Manuscript and Cursive Penmanship Skills
7. Teaching New Words through the Sight and Context Methods
8. Teaching New Words through the Word Structure Methods
9. Eliciting Single and Multiple Untimed and Timed Responses and Teaching Proofing Skills Through Dictation
10. Teaching New Words through Phonics

11. Teaching Grammar for Sentence Reading and Writing. Books 1 and 2
12. Analyzing Sentences
13. Teaching Writing (Creative and Expository) Skills
14. Teaching Study Skills

The validation research for the ECRI reading approach cites a 96% retention rate after 16 weeks for new vocabulary words compared to a national rate of 3% after 8 weeks. School districts using the ECRI method boast "[a]verage gains during the past four years have exceeded 2.5 years per year enrolled in the program" and "[f]irst graders taught the ECRI method are reading at 3.8 grade level here."

Elementary education students at BYU-H are instructed in the ECRI materials during the Reading methods class and also in the Language Arts Practicum class. During the practicum, the ECRI materials are used when students conduct a Reading Clinic for elementary students. Each elementary education major has approximately six elementary students for one hour per day, four days a week in a supervised setting.

In summary, the elementary education faculty at Brigham Young University - Hawaii feel a joint partnership with any agency, public or private, that has the welfare of elementary children as a first priority. The faculty feels that where proven worthwhile, the teacher education programs should capitalize on all available practices. After all, elementary children are affected by the product of the teacher education program. As illustrated here at Brigham Young University - Hawaii, the work of the public schools in North Carolina and the work of a private agency, Exemplary Center for Reading Instruction, are an integral part of the elementary teacher education training program.

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# IMAGINE IT

## 23.5.3 A Collaborative Initiative for Teacher Training, Instructional Improvement, and Curricular Development (Teachers on Tour)

Rita E. Smith
George J. Hagerty

1962 + 1987 = twenty-five years.

Twenty-five years of wondering. Wondering about the homes, schools and classrooms from which students come. What is their educational background? How can teachers build upon the years of a student's education if they are separated by schedules, grades, disciplines and levels of education? Why are teachers separated when they share a common love of knowledge, ideas and students?

Twenty-five years of wondering what happens to students in other classes. What magic are colleagues performing to motivate the seemingly unmotivated? Why do some students underestimate their potential and limit their futures by believing college is beyond their reach? How can all those who view education as the single most significant element to effect a better way of life, both in quality and quantity, in value and material wealth, better support young people and help them exceed their novice expectations?

1962 + 1987

Twenty-five years of wanting to know if graduates meet college faculty standards? Do they possess the basic knowledge and skills essential for success? Do they succeed? Why is the transition from school to college haphazard and confusing? How can greater continuity be established between secondary schools and higher education?

I'd like to know if college professors are deeply committed to students and the classroom. Do they experience the same joys and satisfactions of teaching? Are they as isolated from their colleagues as are secondary, middle school and elementary teachers? How much respect are they accorded by their colleagues and institutions? Do college professors feel an urgent need to become directly involved in the international, national, and state efforts to establish excellence in education? Are they committed to recognizing outstanding teaching? Do college professors respect the teaching knowledge and skills classroom practitioners have acquired through experience? How determined are they to make teaching a more highly respected and valued profession?

Twenty-five years ago when I, along with so many others, entered the teaching profession we were well prepared. We were confident of our knowledge and eager to teach. The writings of Durant, Plumb, Ceram, and the words of our professors stimulated our thinking. We had something to offer students: Our knowledge, intelligence, creativity, enthusiasm, sensitivity, wit and youthful idealism.

As the years passed, we continued our education. Simon, Holt, Goodlad, Fenton, Boyer, Lightfoot. We read them all and more. They are right! They are wrong! We attended workshops and conferences to discover other methodologies which foster creativity, critical thinking, cultural awareness, communication and collaboration skills. Like all dedicated practitioners we concentrated on adapting and creating lessons which enthuse students about knowledge and actively engage them in the learning process. Most of all, we've remained determined to make the educational experiences more rewarding for our students than it has ever been before. Looking back, a modest honesty forces us to admit some success. We reached quite a few.

But along the way our knowledge of our subject matter has become more and more superficial. Like students, our primary sources of knowledge has become textbooks. Not only has our history become ancient, but we know little about how current educational theory relates to the realities of our classroom. Instead of spending evening and weekends reading what research says about the teaching and learning process, we correct essays, notebooks, projects and search for and duplicate finds the school cannot afford to buy. When will the hours teachers devote to preparing classes and evaluating performances be recognized and rewarded?

Twenty-five years...Yes,...I keep wondering when colleagues, who have grown apart, will be provided the necessary time for peer support, reflection, evaluation, and academic study, so they may become even more effective teachers. When will incentives be available to help teachers develop new ideas, write curriculum, and demonstrate and disseminate effective lessons? Why aren't more of today's senior teachers being utilized as a major resource in teaching the new generation of teachers and also stimulating the professional growth of those who are already teaching? How much longer will we limit career options and opportunities for teachers? Teachers, as they are traditionally defined, cannot be promoted except out of teaching! How can we restructure teacher education and redefine the roles of teacher to attract and retain the best and brightest in the teaching profession? What are the possibilities for professional improvement when education, liberal arts, and science faculties are provided opportunities to collaborate with their colleagues at all levels?

In short, for twenty-five years, I have been wondering when members of the same profession, with a common purpose and duty, will stop wondering in isolation and begin imagining together what can be achieved through collaboration? Imagine it !!!!!!!

This twenty-five year veteran high school teacher has originated Teachers on Tour, an innovative collaborative initiative, to address the challenges confronting teacher preparation programs, school districts and the teaching profession.

Teachers on Tour is a project of collaboration....of collegial support, reflection, training, mentoring and scholarship. Unlike traditional (pull-out) inservice offerings, the Teachers on Tour initiative represents a vigorous teacher training, instructional improvement and curricular development effort which will draw upon the considerable resources extant in the public schools, institutions of higher education and the communities of southeastern Massachusetts.

Based upon a pilot program administered in Vancouver, Washington, the Teachers on Tour project is designed to reduce the isolation of classroom teachers and to foster a spirit of partnership and shared responsibility by:

- Providing opportunities for lead teachers, college faculty, prospective teachers and other interested community members to plan and work together -- with the focus on the act of classroom teaching, improving instruction and teacher education;

- Establishing a dynamic, teacher-centered model involving all educational levels through which hundreds of effective lessons can be disseminated from classroom to classroom, from community to community; and

- Using the Touring Teachers system to identify, recruit and train Mentor Teachers to provide the support needed for beginning teachers to become confident, capable and creative teachers.

The project has three central components: (1) the Touring Teachers program administered during the academic year, (2) a Touring Teachers project conference, and (3) a series of Summer Curriculum Development workshops.

During the academic year, teams of two to four Touring Teachers plan and deliver unit-based collegial instruction to students in actual school and college classrooms. In undertaking these unique educational ventures, teachers and school administrators from across grade levels and district boundaries may join with college professors, prospective teachers and interested community members. Together, they combine their talents and expertise to decide how best to meet the needs of children and the instructional goals of teachers, and to create short-term teaching activities which satisfy these goals.

Touring Teachers may choose to work with colleagues on any level or in any content area. Teams are formed around common topics, concepts, skills, teaching interests, backgrounds and concerns. In order to assist undergraduate students to become active participants in project activities, a formal course is offered to pre-professionals. This course focuses on collaborative teaching methods, creative instructional techniques, and characteristics of effective teaching.

In order to promote the development of an exceptional troupe of Mentor Teachers in the southeastern Massachusetts region, those school district faculty who are evaluated as particularly effective in their instructional delivery and depth of subject knowledge are recruited to become candidates for Mentor Teacher training.

Each year, Stonehill College will host a project conference to provide opportunities for Touring Teachers to discuss their collective work and to share their love of teaching and learning.

Building upon the academic year efforts of Touring Teacher teams, the project will sponsor a curriculum writing workshop each summer. The objective of this workshop is to promote the development, revision and use of teacher-generated curriculum which emphasize five essential pedagogical elements: (1) creativity, (2) critical thinking, (3) cultural awareness, (4) collaboration, and (5) communication skills.

## 23.6 PREPARING FOR THE FUTURE: BUILDING THE FOUNDATIONS FOR A PACIFIC RIM SCHOOLS' ASSOCIATION

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The Pacific Rim Community is rapidly becoming an important business, commercial and industrial entity, in which many countries are establishing trading agreements. If British Columbia is going to become an active member of this economic community, initiatives must be immediately undertaken to familiarize its citizens with the historical heritage, languages, religious beliefs, social values, and business practices of countries in the region which are going to play an important role in shaping and developing what could become a Pacific common market. Such a process is, of course, permanent and continuous and must begin with the young people of the province, for they are our future business men and women who can establish British Columbia as a major trading partner in the Pacific Rim.

Due to the size and location of the Province of British Columbia, many of its people have lived in cultural isolation all their lives. Until recently, a significant proportion of the population worked, played and lived within a short distance of where they were born. Advances in communications technologies have brought events from around the world into the homes of British Columbians, with the result that the province's people have begun to realize that their future prosperity will depend to a significant extent upon new commercial and trading agreements being established with countries overseas. Also, there is a growing awareness among the populace that cultural isolation and a focus on self-sufficiency will result in a substantive decline in the province's standard of living.

To remove cultural and economic barriers which have existed for decades is extremely difficult and requires ample time, patience, resources and energy. Similarly, proven business practices, standard behaviour patterns, traditional beliefs and accepted perceptions cannot be modified quickly. It is equally apparent that Asian pacific Rim nations are anxious to construct lasting cultural and economic links with Canada and to establish a Pacific Rim community within which they also can avoid economic and cultural isolation. British Columbia is the natural focus for the establishment of these links.

The new intercultural experience discussed briefly in this workshop is designed to increase participating students' knowledge of Pacific Rim countries and to enhance the professional development of supervising educators. By employing contemporary communication media and computer networks students and educators will be able to converse about their cultures, communities, lifestyles and schools through the period the programme is in operation. These distance education delivery strategies will be examined and commented upon with respect to their application in this international cooperative venture. Potential future benefits generated by the Pacific Rim schools which participate in this attachment-exchange scheme will be identified and discussed.

# 23.7 CHILDREN'S ATTRIBUTIONS FOR SUCCESSES AND FAILURES IN COMPETITIVE GAME SITUATIONS

**G.J MOONEY**
**Victoria College - Burwood Campus**

Self-efficacy is the strength of ones [illegible] ne can obtain a particul. desired outcome. More specific than confidence in general ability associated with a strong, positive self-concept, this efficacy is linked directly with particular outcome expectations. For instance, a child may have a comparatively weak concept of self as a student, yet a strong sense of self-efficacy in particular competitive game situations. Hence, the cognitive mediations associated with academic strategies will be weak, often confused and pessimistic, when the child has no sense of control over the outcomes in, say, maths problems (Schunk, 1980). Yet, in a competitive game situation the same child will have efficacious cognitive mediations related to success and will persist longer and be more optimistic when that child believes in the probability of success (Bandura, 1977, 1980, 1982; Harter, 1981).

Associated with a sense of efficacy is explanatory style, or the way the individual rationalizes outcomes. Those with a strong self-efficacy explain both successful and unsuccessful outcomes in terms of internal dimensions such as ability and effort. Individuals in this category are enthusiastic, optimistic, and persist longer in the face of adversity. On the other hand, individuals with weak self-efficacy are more likely to explain both successful and unsuccessful outcomes of events they are involved with as due to external forces, such as luck and the nature of the task, over which they have no control. These individuals are less enthusiastic about participation, pessimistic about the worth of effort, and soon give-up in the face of challenge. Seligman (1967, 1987) associated these cognitions for failing with "learned helplessness" and subsequent depressive behaviour with negative "explanatory style".

Attribution theory is a cognitive approach to motivation which focuses on the way in which people form interpretations for the causes of the outcome of events in which they are involved (Heider, 1958; Weiner, 1972). People use these cognitions to understand and explain outcomes, and predict behaviour. Schunk (1980) noted the effect of perceived causal attributions on the use of known strategies in math problems, and the ability to plan new ones.

Weiner (1972) described the perception of achievement situations when individuals attempt to understand why an outcome occurred in terms of four general factors. Individuals typically draw upon their own ability, their effort, the difficulty of the task, and the degree of luck encountered in rationalizing outcomes.

Empirical research has demonstrated that males, whether adults (Deux and Farris, 1977) or children (Nicholls, 1975; Martens, 1977; Iso-Ahola, 1979) are more likely to assign causality of their success to ability and less likely to claim lack of ability as a cause of their failure, than females. Conversely, females are more likely to attribute success to situational factors, such as difficulty (or ease) of task, or luck, and ascribe their failures less often to external factors than do males.

Rotter (1972) claimed that, through their experiences, people form generalized expectancies about their behaviour. These he classified through investigation of internal and external locus of control. Individuals with an internal locus of control believe that they control the outcomes involving themselves, through their own abilities and efforts; those with an external locus of control have no similar sense of control over their destiny. Individuals such as these believe that results and outcomes are dependent upon the power of others and luck (Cartright, 1979). Given the influence of self-perception on self-esteem, the relationship between locus of control and personality is apparent. Seligman and Schulman (1980) concluded there was a similar relationship when studying the negative explanatory styles associated with individuals' explanations for outcomes of events.

Phares and Lamiell (1975) presented studies showing that individuals with higher levels of internal control have greater mastery tendencies, greater resistance to outside influence, and greater likelihood of achievement striving.

Battle and Rotter (1963) also found that children from deprived backgrounds were more "external" than counterparts from more abundant upbringing.

Despite recent moves to educate towards the true equality of sexes and break down existing perceptions, sex-role stereotypes persist (Broverman, Clarkson and Rosenkrantz, 1972; Menagan, 1982; Fisher, Genovese, Morris and Morris, 1982). Typically, such stereotypes denote that boys are generally physically more competent than girls; boys are more aggressive; and that boys have a higher need for achievement in competitive situations.

Many individuals hold negative views about female participation in sport. These often act as antecedents to a self-fulfilling prophecy. Whereas the male is expected to be active, competitive and aggressive, the female is encouraged to be passive, co-operative, and non-aggressive. As a result a female is trapped between adhering to the culturally prescribed sex-role and asserting herself as a "winner" in competitive situations. They perceive themselves as "helpless" in situations demanding skill and self-reliance. According to Seligman's theory of "learned helplessness" a characteristic of such perception would entail a negative self-explanatory style to prevail. Hence, the "I can't do it", "I'm no good at anything" syndrome. The evidence of this is borne out in the explanations given for failures ("I'm no good at this game", "I'm never going to get better", and "I am just no good at games") which explain the event as being caused by something stable over time, global and internal.

Because explanatory style is a source of self-efficacy, then by altering the individual's cognitions it is possible to shift the child's expectations and explanations of both failures and successes such that their self-esteem is protected and enhanced. In the classroom or competitive game situation, Seligman found that it was not only the outcome that was a determinant of subsequent coping behaviour, but the manner of the *explanations* given for outcomes.

Since children learn cognitive styles at school, through teaching situations, it would appear appropriate to expect that, like other metacognitions, a positive explanatory style could be learned by children. In order to observe any differences in explanatory style, grade 4 and grade 6 children were observed in a game situation in which both success and failure could be ascribed to effort, ability (internal attitudes) or task difficulty or luck (external attributes). The games were (i) a novel kick-score in pairs, and (ii) noughts and crosses. After outcomes children were asked to give reasons for winning and losing. Grade 4 (n=59) and 6 (n=64) children were categorized as having either internal or external locus of control.

Results indicated that both Grades 4 and 6 boys and girls attributed winning to internal causes. The majority perceived effort (unstable) as being the prime explanation for success.

There were no significant differences in attributions for either winning or losing situations for Grade 4 boys and girls. However, Grade 6 girls indicated a shift towards internal causes when in *losing* situations. Even some of those who were rated as "internals" on overall assessment, tended to blame themselves (their lack of ability or effort) when they lost. On the other hand, boys of similar age tended to perceive causes for failure as outside their control. Although the older boys perceived success in terms of the outcomes of their ability and effort (internal), they viewed losing as due to either bad luck or the opponent's good play at that time (external). Comments such as "I had bad luck", "My opponent had good luck", and "I haven't learned the game properly" (task) were recorded in interviews after the games. This indicated causes were to blame which were both external and temporary. On the other hand, girls blamed themselves giving internal, stable attributes as causes for failure.

Because goal-setting and future outcomes are dependent upon the efficacy of self-attributes, teachers can redress some of the negative consequences of self-blaming explanatory style. This is necessary since pupils who showed this (and the majority were Grade 6 girls) had a negative attitude towards games and their competence in future competitive situations where they thought they could lose. Those who saw failure as a temporary aberration (the majority were boys) had a far more positive outlook. This optimism carried over into all game situations. They persisted in the face of challenge, and were more optimistic in planning strategies. They supported this optimism in losing situations by blaming external causes such as luck. Girls on the other hand, tended to fulfill their pessimistic outlook by their actions. They persisted less and showed less resilience to challenge, subsequently giving-in to opponents when "threatened".

Given that boys and girls at grade 4 level show no real differences in attributions for winning and losing, the explanatory styles which develop during the next years should be studied further to see if changes can be made to alter cognitive mediations. Given that these mental processes are related to self-efficacy, which in turn determines outcomes of behaviour and self-esteem, then teachers and coaches might concentrate on internalizing the child athlete's attributions. This is assisted by teachers using more unstable and specific explanations for their failures, as they do with boys.

When boys were criticized they were often criticized for being lazy, or not concentrating. When girls were criticized, they were told they weren't using their abilities, which resulted in failure being viewed in helpless terms. This could be prevented by teaching primary-age girls (and their teachers) to use a more global and internal cognitive style, the antecedent of a more optimistic, self-proficient view of successful participation in competitive games, and a less self-deprecating, internal, explanatory style in losing situations.

## AUSTRALIAN TEACHER EDUCATION IN REVIEW
### Inaugural Yearbook of the South Pacific Journal of Education

The chapters in this book consider developments in Australian teacher education in the last two decades. This period has seen dramatic changes both in the demand for teachers and in the way Australian teachers have been trained for their professional roles. There have, too, been a number of major administrative upheavals as a result of changes in government policy. In this inaugural Yearbook the authors have attempted not only to tease out the major issues and events during this period, but have sought to isolate the problems to which teacher educators and administrators should be providing answers.

Yearbook Contents: Dr K.J. Eltis (editor)

| | | |
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| 1 | Teacher Education in the 70s and 80s | Professor Glen Evans |
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| 8 | Teacher Education in Australia-The Prospects | Dr Kenneth Eltis |

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# 2A.1 TEACHER EDUCATION: REFORMS AND STRATEGIES

## SOME U.K. EXPERIENCES

### Professor David N. Aspin

This paper starts from the consideration of the paradox that may be discerned to subsist between the rhetoric of government policies supposed to promote a radical reformation of social institutions on a completely libertarian basis and the reality of centralising and authoritarian tendencies in the actual policies of some governments. One such policy is the recent program for a nation-wide accreditation of Teacher Education courses in the U.K.

The paper gives a brief description of the main features of the restructuring of Teacher Education courses now required by the U.K. Department of Education and Science and licensed by the new Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education; and it also adverts to some of the criteria that are determinative in the reformulation of U.K. TE courses. A special point is made of delineating the three principal areas of innovation: the selection and examination of candidates; the content of the courses; and the credentialling of the lecturers and teachers involved in delivering the new TE courses. Mention is made of the demand for "Phase and subject specificity" in students' final qualification and this is related to the list of allowable school subjects now promulgated in the legislation enacting the imposition of a National Curriculum. Innovations in the content of courses is shown to consist in the alteration in the balance of emphasis between practical experience and activity in the classroom, to which primacy in such courses is now given, and the theoretical considerations relating to the effective pedagogics involved, in which the prescriptions and propositions relating to curriculum subject and method of its delivery have pride of place over the larger scale problems, topics and issues that were previously regarded as constituting the staple of appropriate educational professional discourse. Reference is also made to the requirements laid upon lecturers not merely to have a much longer period of engagement in TE courses, (now in the order of 40 weeks per year) but in the requirement laid upon them for regular periods of retraining as teachers in classroom situations in schools, both of which are held to make for serious disadvantages for lecturers in Education as against other academics in tertiary education institutions.

Some analysis is attempted of the epistemic bases of the U.K. program, the axiology, epistemology and psychology of which are successively examined. In the case of each of these meta-theoretical bases it is argued that the U.K. government's proposals rest upon meta-ethical and normative moral foundations, a theory of knowledge, and a psychology of learning, individual differences and motivation that are unstated, unclear, contentious and in need of substantial elucidation and justification. This is nowhere given in the way and to the extent that the author believes is called for by the publicly-funded character, the scope and the likely consequences that the imposition of such a radical reform of TE courses bids fair to bring about.

The paper's criticism of these features of the recently instituted changes in policy regarding TE courses in the U.K. permits certain tentative conclusions to be drawn regarding a set of principles to which public bodies elsewhere in the world engaged in the process of the reconsideration and restructuring of such courses might reasonably be expected to pay attention:

1. The emphasis on teacher training to feed national needs of an economic kind will take emphasis away from other important matters still needing to be addressed, such as the articulation of principles for matters such as (a) the funding and distribution of resources; (b) fundamental and high level research and development; (c) equity and emancipation for women, the disadvantaged and ethnic minorities. It also diminishes the importance that many might think should be attached to other areas, such as, for instance, education in the Arts, Personal and Social Education, and Peace and Conflict Studies, by which the lives of citizens in the community can not only be stabilised but also given a sense of dignity and enrichment.

2. Centralism threatens institutional autonomy and inhibits the productive virtues of an open society in all its diverse agencies and functions . It also diminishes flexibility and variety.

3. The sheer emphasis on vocational purposes only militates against the very possibility of Teacher Education courses being seen as contributing to the processes of liberal education. Teachers are not mere economic functionaries but agents for the promotion of the pursuit of truth in all its forms and the dissemination of all the virtues of civilization.

4. Pragmatism threatens the establishment in our students' intellectual apparatus of a secure grounding in the disciplinary bases that are an indispensable part of the professional and academic resources, upon which teachers need to draw to inform their background perspectives, shape up their teaching plans, and direct their educational policies.

5. Conformism militates against the initiation of students of teacher education into productive modes of critical and creative thinking that will conduce to the health and welfare of the societies in which they will subsequently serve.

6. The move towards institutional separatism will threaten the standing of Teacher Education faculties and courses and their access to their research base and to productive collaboration with and benefit from the academic and scholarly enterprises of other faculties and departments in multi-

faculty institutions of higher education, that will enable them to feed the results of their own research endeavours directly into the amendment, improvement and refinement of programs in institutions working so as to prepare the community's coming generations for its future demands and opportunities.

These are goods from which courses in medical, legal and architectural education already derive sustenance and substantial moral, jurisprudential and aesthetic benefit. It is to be hoped that governments in Australasia currently instituting reappraisal of Teacher Education courses in publicly funded institutions will not deprive their Teacher Education students of access to the same benefits. It is equally to be hoped that they will make a point of consulting with a wide range of opinions among all those parts of the education service and others who are involved in the continuing processes of appraisal, planning and implementation of pre- and in-service teacher education (bodies such as SPATE among them) for advice on the ways in which they can work out valid and academically sound meta-theoretical bases in the logic, epistemology, psychology and ethics of Teacher Education courses and the optimum forms of their implementation.

24.2

# Teachers' Perceptions Of Their Influence In School Decision Making: The Implications For Teacher Educators.

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## INTRODUCTION:

This paper seeks to do two things. Firstly, to report on a recent study of teachers' perceptions of their influence in school decision making. The research was conducted in a cluster of schools in the Western Region of Melbourne. Teachers' perceptions of their participation were surveyed through a questionnaire and interview situation. The research findings indicated a huge discrepancy between the decisions teachers wanted to make, and their degree of influence in these same decisions. Schools are experiencing significant problems in implementing effective teacher participation. I believe these problems are a shared responsibility and must be addressed by all members of the school commmunity, the central administration and teacher educators. This leads to the second, and perhaps more pertinent purpose of this paper, that is, to address the implications of my research for teacher educators. The results of my study pose some challenging questions for us, if we are to adequately prepare young teachers with the necessary attitudes and skills to participate successfully.

## RESULTS:

1. This group of teachers was positive about participation, even though they indicated a number of diffficulties in actually achieving this.
2. Teachers wanted an increase in their influence domain.
3. Teachers identified a number of positive features that helped include teachers in a meaningful and purposeful way.
4. A change in government policy has not meant that peoples' attitudes and behaviours have necessarily changed.
5. For this group of teachers morale was low and frustration was experienced at all levels.
6. An atmosphere of trust did not operate, where teachers were encouraged to take on leadership behaviour.

## IMPLICATIONS:

The trend towards greater school autonomy requires that schools come of age and assume control of their own affairs. To do this effectively, all members of the school community need to participate, particularly teachers, who need to assert themselves and assume greater responsibility and accountability in the school decision making process. We can ill afford for this to be left to the dedicated and confident few; successful participation depends on a team effort towards achieving the school's goals. All members of the school community need to be valued, and parents need to be treated in exactly the same manner. The successful schools are those that include all members in a meaningful and purposeful way. This means that teachers need to be made more aware of the part they must play in asserting themselves, and actively participating. They also need to consider their role in much wider terms than the classroom.

This places a large measure of responsibility on us as teacher educators, who need to give more emphasis to training people with the necessary attitudes and skills to participate. Young teachers need to have a broader concept of the teacher's role, which includes the domains of the classroom, school and the community. Teachers are in a position of influence in the decision making process, if they assume greater responsibility and accountability. This can be encouraged in a climate of trust, where the Principal allows staff real responsibility. Such a situation gives people confidence in their own ability to contribute and the necessary experience they need to develop participatory skills. However, this was not the case in a large number of the schools surveyed.

The participatory skills young teachers need are: assertiveness, communication, negotiation, an understanding of decision making processes, leadership behaviour and change processes. Together with these skills, they need to develop positive attitudes towards greater participation. It is important that our young teachers are ready to assume the responsibilities that greater participation demand. This requires confident teachers, who value their own contributions and are prepared to persist with their ideas.

This raises some challenging questions for us as teacher educators! Do our courses include sufficient growth and development in the skills and attitudes necessary for participation? Are our students given adequate opportunities to explore their own levels of confidence, assertiveness, and leadership behaviour? Are the students who indicate a willingness to participate, adequately rewarded for their effort? Are students encouraged to take responsibility for their own learning, or do we allow them to become far too dependent on others? Do we give them a sense that their contribution will be valued, in as much as they can see themselves being influential in the decision making processes? Are our students confident in their own ability to make a worthwhile contribution? These are important complex questions, to which there are no simple answers. However, we cannot afford to rely on the hope that young teachers will develop these skills, as the consequence of experience.

I believe that the growth and success of a school community depends upon the energy, commitment and creativity of all its members. Participation is seen as a positive way to include all members of the school community, which makes successful participation everyones responsibility. The two main questions this raises for teacher educators are: what is the nature of our contribution; and are there ways in which we can improve the effectiveness of teacher training, so that we better prepare teachers for the task of participation? These are timely demands that need to be addressed, otherwise, it is feared that government policy will be purely good intention. Our young teachers going out into schools are the ones who will need to help convert policy into successful action. Schools are becoming frustrated with the concept of teacher participation. If this is allowed to continue, there is a very real danger that schools will lose the many positive benefits accrued to teacher participation.

24.3

# TEACHER INSERVICE PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT: OPTIMISING PLANNING FOR SYSTEM AND INDIVIDUAL NEEDS

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During the past ten years a number of reports have investigated and made recommendations concerning the pre-service education of teachers (Auchmuty, 1980; Board of Teacher Education, Queensland, 1987). During this time span, few large scale studies or reports have focused specifically on the professional development of teachers once they have begun their careers. Among the few large scale studies that have concentrated on the in-service education of teachers has been the Coulter and Ingvarson (1985) study that overviewed a variety of aspects of teacher professional development, the Duigan (1986) study that evaluated the professional development program in New South Wales and a study by the writer (Conners, 1987) that investigated the professional development needs of two thousand eight hundred primary and secondary teachers in New South Wales.

It is maintained by this writer that the in-service education of teachers has not received the systematic and whole hearted system support that could improve the efficiency and effectiveness of the teaching service. It is further maintained by this writer that there are a number of variables in the educational scene that are interacting to produce a situation in the 1980's that urgently requires employing authorities, school administrators, teacher unions and individual teachers to come to grips with the need to promote teacher in-service professional development. These variables include the following:

(i) Curricula, organizational and assessment changes require teachers to continually update;
(ii) Teachers are staying in the profession longer, there are fewer beginning teachers and less mobility among teachers;
(iii) There is currently reduced fundings for in-service education programs;
(iv) Many professional development activities are of a short term, ad hoc nature.

The influences of these variables are compounded by the perceptions of a public increasingly concerned about the quality of education. It is now time for employing authorities to give a higher priority to teacher professional development in order to optimise planning for system and

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individual needs. In order to promote teacher professional development in a comprehensive and systematic manner there is the need for a teacher professional development model that will guide short term and long term planning. Many professional development models exist and most fit into the schema proposed by Harding and others (1981) who describe four models which can be summarized as follows:

(i) The Medicine Model which prescribes specific treatments for individuals;
(ii) The Public Health Model which operates through rewards;
(iii) The Athletic Model which encourages self-development through individual initiative; and
(iv) The Authoritarian Model which lays down institutional objectives and requires participation.

While all these models have specific strengths, none by itself is sufficiently broad to guide the professional development of all teachers at different stages of their teaching careers. This writer, however, proposes a comprehensive model that provides a guide to teacher professional development practices. The model has been called the Individual, Continuous Growth Model of Teacher Professional Development. A brief summary of the main dimensions of the model are outlined below. To place the model in context it is important to understand how this writer views professional development. In this paper, professional development is defined as the sum of all activities, both formal and informal, carried out by the individual or the system to promote staff growth and renewal.

### Individual, Continuous Growth Model of Teacher Professional Development.

The model draws upon current Australian, British and North American findings in the area of teacher in-service professional development. The model emphasises teacher professional development as a continuous growth process. The model also places stress on catering for individual teacher and administrator needs as well as providing a balance with system needs.

The main dimensions of the model are outlined in summary form below:

1. The model stresses that teachers should be actively involved in determining their own professional development needs from the very beginning of the planning process. When teachers participate in the determination, initiation and organization of their own professional development programs, there is a greater incentive to succeed.

2. The model emphasises that professional development is a continuous process that takes place at the various stages of a teacher's or administrator's career. At each career stage the model stresses that it is the individual's responsiblity to make decisions about professional development. The model is "growth" oriented not "problem oriented".

3. The model takes account of theories of adult learning. Professional development programs need to recognize the rich and varied backgrounds adult learners bring to the learning situation, the autonomy of the adult learner, the variety of learning styles demonstrated by adult learners and the differing needs that motivate adult learners to become involved in learning activities.

4. The model emphasises that there should be access to and a choice of a variety of programs, activities and delivery modes for teachers and administrators to gain new knowledge and skills.

5. The model emphasises that the majority of professional development activities and programs should be school based. A number of issues are raised here. These include the existence of a staff developed professional development policy in each school; the existence of a staff development committee in a school or cluster of smaller schools; the establishment of networks of schools to exchange ideas, and the existence of professional development centres to assist professional development officers co-ordinate and promote programs and activities.

6. While the model places stress on the individual it can only succeed if it is built into an institutional framework. A system provides financial support and other resourses and has a wider overview than that of the individual teacher or individual school. A system has needs and demands such as staffing responsiblities and the introduction of new curricula that must be fulfilled. The model establishes links and communication channels within the system so that fragmentation does not occur.

### Implications.

For the model to operate successfully and effectively meet individual teacher and system needs there are a number of issues that need to be explored:

1. There is need for professional development programs, activities and

resources to be made known and available to all teachers and administrators in a system.

2. There is need for work to be done in pre-service teacher education to orient prospective teachers to the culture of professional development.

3. There is a need to explore the relationship between individual and system needs.

4. There is the need to establish a recognized organizational infrastructure to facilitate the implementation of the model.

5. There is the need to allocate a percentage of a system's budget to teacher in-service professional development.

6. There is the need for teacher professional development to gain more status. It will always remain a superficial activitity unless it is strongly supported and fostered by leaders at all levels within an educational system.

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## Developing a Pacific Studies component in Teacher Education programs

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A session for those committed to developing a greater interest in teaching about the Pacific.

The study of the Pacific is an area of study which has been ignored in teacher education . In 1975 and 1987, when surveys were carried out on the extent of teaching about the Pacific in Australian Universities and CAE's, very few institutions were offering courses related to the Pacific, and by 1987 most of those which had offered them in 1975 were now no longer doing so.

Internationally, in New Zealand, Canada, the United states, Australia, Hawaii, Papua New Guinea, Guam, Fiji and Europe, there are 1800 students currently enrolled in thirty institutions offering teaching and research opportunities in a wide range of Pacific related studies. Although the study of the Pacific is;

**"now represented by a complex infrastructure of research and teaching institutions and by an extensive range of book and journal publications,** " (1)

little is being done to prepare teachers for classrooms where students need to be learning about this region.

Yet the Pacific has during that time become an increasingly important, and newsworthy item. There are few trainee teachers who have not read in the press, heard on radio or seen on Television about Mururoa Atoll, Kanak independence, military coups in Fiji, Russian moves in the Pacific region, or the Somare-Wingti leadership battles in Papua New Guinea. Regular stories on cyclones, a Rabual volcano scare or a South Pacific special on tourist jaunts, regularly fill the pages on magazines as diverse as The Womans Weekly, Geo, Australian Geograhic, Cosmopolitan, Surfing World, and Australian Stamp Buying Guide. What do trainee teachers make of this , and how well are they being prepared to handle these issues in the learning experiences of the children they will teach ?

The following list is a collection of "topics" which secondary teachers suggested at an in-service in Melbourne in November 1987. The range is vast; the interest level high, however, there was despair at not knowing where to start or how to approach these issues and themes in the classroom;

Tourism
Super powers
Australia & the Pacific
Geography- the Ocean
Exploration-voyages
Type of Government
Food
First contact
Traders
Contact with other "western" cultures
Micro/Poly/Melanesia?

Imperialism
World War II & Japan
Social conditions
Habitat & resources
Economy
Art
Oral traditions
Change& Continuity
Origins of the people

Independence
Nuclear issues
Geography of the rim
Pollution Environment
Religion
Land rights
"Noble savages"
Missions
Who should be there ?
Immediate events

This list demonstrates the scope of teacher's interests and the wide range of immediate and significant developments occurring in our Pacific region, yet few had actually taught anything about these issues, or even attempted to use them as a content vehicle to develop the broad concepts, skills, values or attitudes which underlie much of what teaching is about.

Support for teaching about the Pacific has come from several directions. There have been two major Parliamentary Inquiries into Australia's relations with the region, and although they have stressed the need for Australians to improve their understanding of the region, this has not been followed by any developments in the school curriculum or in teacher education programs. The Curriculum Development Centre sponsored two Pacific projects in the late 1970's but neither had any impact on State Education systems or the curriculum planning of individual teachers. The Pacific History Association has published bibliographies and film guides and sponsored an international conference on teaching Pacific History (in Auckland in 1986), but again the impact, except in New Zealand has been minimal.

In his opening address to the Auckland conference, Mr Bill Renwick, now retired New Zealand Director-General of Education, noted that, "
**"the introduction of more Pacific History into schools was one way of helping locate New Zealanders more firmly in the geographic and cultural context of their region."**(2)
The same might be said for Australian schools. Indeed it has been proposed by the Australian Schools Commission, in their report In the National Interest, that;
**"schools should systematically teach about Australia, presenting it as.......a country which is part of the Asian-Pacific region with important links to and interests in the region."** (3)
There has also been considerable push to develop Australian studies in tertiary education, including teacher training institutions. The Committee to review Australian studies in tertiary education (CRASTE) noted in their report that in developing a program for students to; "
**"develop an understanding of the social context in which their skills will be applied, needs, in conceptualizing "Australia" to begin from the role and place of the Aboriginal and Islander people."** (4)
Although less central, the role of Pacific Islanders in Australia, and in relationships with Australians in the Islands, also needs to be stressed. In arguing for a greater integration of Pacific related studies into teacher education courses, one approach is to join the "we are part of Asia - Asians are our neighbours", group and to justify it on grounds of regional security, and trade. Another approach is to join the "other cultures" push. The CRASTE report, Windows onto worlds noted that academics had urged the committee to;
**"approach Australian history from a perspective which would enable students to view their culture and society in a world context."**(5)
There is a need for students to see Australia in the context of its 200 year economic/political relationship with the Pacific islands, but more than that, to see the pattern of human experiences in the Pacific as a reflection of their own world.

Much of that which is argued for Pacific related studies, has already been argued for Asian Studies, and indeed for Aborigine Studies, Womens Studies, Multicultural Studies and other contenders for curriculum space. As far back as 1968 two books, John Young's Australia's Pacific Frontier and David Hainsworths The Sydney Traders were published for teachers, and although in Australia, as in New Zealand, we have a strong argument that our history is incomplete without some understanding of the links with the Pacific which have existed since 1788, little of Australia-Pacific relations has reached down to schools. This hurdle was addressed at the Auckland Conference, and although relating to history, the "functional uses" identified probably apply to all Pacific related study areas.

- **It enhances a student's personal growth by confronting a past**

**which has contributed significantly to his or her present**

- **it helps to develop a sense of self-identity and self -worth**
- **it provides a balance to the Eurocentricism of existing curricula**
- **it fosters a greater understanding of other cultures within a multi-racial national, regional and global context**
- **it develops an appreciation of the relationships amongst peoples of the Pacific (6)**

The reccomendations of the Auckland conference, which were forwarded to Education authorities around the region, also suggested that teaching in schools should be supported by teacher training programs, in-service courses, and teacher secondments and exchanges, both within and beyond the region.

One special plea for teaching about the Pacific in schools, relies on the nature of the subject disciplines and the manner in which research, publication and teaching is in a state of flux. The Pacific is a relatively new area of research. Therefore Pacific history, anthropolgy, literature, art, geography and others are in a dynamic state. The following comment refers to history, but could equally apply to most academic areas and thereby to the school curriculum.

**"Pacific history is a dynamic subject because it is constantly being reshaped, approached by different methods and rewritten; and because it involves students in a critical, analytical process of being aware of self and others. Moreover there are close associations between Pacific History and the culture-language-oral tradition. In New Zealand it helps place "taha Maori" in a broader context." (7)**

In Australia, it will similarly help place Aborigine and Islander studies, and Australian studies in a broader context.

My own experience in teacher training institutions has been that back in 1973 I first adopted a survey-narrative type approach. Although aware of island-orientated approaches to studying the Pacific, the elective course taken by Diploma I and II students did the usual run through origins and migrations, missionaries, beachcombers, traders, colonizers and settlers, before a brisk run over the two world wars, mining, tourism and cultural change. Several years later I had revised the approach and was focussing on a two part tutorial rather than lecture format. The first part tackled at greater depth, selected issues (missions, leadership, mining, tourism, independence, etc) and the other, the lives of individual islanders primarily through biographical material. Further down the road I now find myself lecturing and workshopping my way through a first semester of pre-contact studies, relying on cultural anthropology to look at origins and migrations, women, religion, leadership and settlement patterns. The second semester of tutorials concentrates on post-1945 issues including nuclear testing, art, tourism, forced migrations, land rights, literature, super-power politics, culture and identity. The pleasing aspect of this evolutionary process is that I still find former students doing something about the Pacific in their classrooms. Of equal importance is that they often remarked when at College, how much value studying the Pacific was when taking their compulsory "Studies in Australian culture" Units.

An increasing interest in the Pacific has been discernable over the past decade, judged simply by the numbers fronting up for "Pacific History" workshops at annual History teachers Conferences in Melbourne since 1973. A new field of study will always attract interest from those teachers desirous of replacing well worn and tired topics from past decades, but a major stimulus was the adopting, during International Year of Peace, of the Pacific as a major focus. Although this raised the consciousness of some teachers, it had limited immediate impact in schools. (8) In the long term, however, it is beginning to have an affect. The Victorian Ministry of

Education has acted by publishing a guide for teachers interested in "***Contemporary Issues, Peace and Development in the Pacific***" These moves, on top of an increasing media coverage of Pacific events, particularly the Rainbow Warrior incident, the Fiji coup, Kanak independence, and political problems in Papua New Guinea, and continuing action by lobby groups and other organizations including ACFOA, CAA, AIIA and the NFIP, will result in some increase in materials suitable for schools. Film Australia has recently released its special Pacific kit (a video and materials) based on the excellent ***Human Face of the Pacific*** series. Projects like the ***Pacific Issues*** edition (Volume 5, Sept 1987) edited and published by students as part of the South Australian Youth Power project will continue to be bright spots on the horizon.

It is time teacher training institutions took up the running and played a greater share in this contribution to teaching and learning in Australian schools. With a general decline in funded, professional development or in-service opportunities, teacher education institutions should fill the gap, identify exemplary programs and approaches and "advertise" the work of these teachers. It is important that teachers are made aware of Pacific related **content**. They must also be made aware of how they can use Pacific related studies in **a variety of teaching styles**. They must also be made aware of the possibilities of Pacific related studies **courses, units** and **studies across the curriculum.**

The development of prototype courses, outlines, or ideas for integrating and multidisciplinary approaches, or the sharing of course information where courses do exist, might engender interest and provide the basis for the development of further Pacific related courses throughout the teacher education network. The Pacific History Association provides one platform for such a sharing, but it is limited in membership. There are other associations and organizations, conferences and seminars, including this SPATE conference, but perhaps a link needs to be established ?

I hope that this session will offer an opportunity to begin defining the range and sequence of potential programs for trainee teachers, based on the Pacific, which might call on a multidisciplinary content, or a sequence of discrete discipline based units, or which might rely on a particular research discipline or on varied methodological approaches.

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1. Report of the Pacific History Workshop (PHA/Massey University, 1986), p.6
2. Ibid., p.5
3. Commonwealth Schools Commission In the National Interest (Canberra, 1987) p.19
4. CRASTE, Windows onto worlds (Canberra, 1987) p.103
5. Ibid., p.68
6. & 7. Report of the Pacific History Workshop, op.cit., p.8
8. A M Quanchi, "Pacific related Studies; implementing a Pacific history perspective in the curriculum" (Paper presented at the Auckland PHA conference) also in Agora, (Melbourne , Vol 21/3 1986.)

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# 244 Development and Prospect in China's Teacher Education

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## I The Present Teacher Education System in China

China's teachers are prepared through pre-service and in-service education via two tiers: secondary normal schools and higher teacher education institutions. The latter consists of two sublevels - professional teacher institutes/teacher colleges, and universities.

The students of secondary normal schools come from junior secondary school graduates, of whom those who wish to be future pre-school or primary school teachers take an examination. Those who pass (plus a health checkup and an interview) are enrolled by secondary normal schools for a four-year course. Some are recommended for admission to higher teacher education institutions.

In contrast, higher teacher education students are from senior secondary schools. Those enrolled in professional teacher institutes will study for two or three years before being sent to junior secondary schools (except a few who will be senior secondary school teachers).

Teachers' college or universities have four or five year courses to prepare teachers for senior secondary, vocational and technical, or secondary normal schools. Some graduates will become teachers in the institutions of higher learning.

There are three tiers of in-service teacher education:

1. Provincial or municipal education institutes;
2. Prefectural or city-level education institutes; and
3. Country or city district level in-service teacher's schools.

The first two levels undertake the preparation of secondary school teachers. The third level prepares pre-school and primary school teachers.

In-service education is planned by education departments at different government levels. Principals nominate individuals and courses for approval by government. Individuals can apply, but must still be nominated and approved.

## II Development in China's Teacher Education

Over the Past Decades: Since the founding of the People's Republic of China in 1949, China's teacher educaton has developed rapidly:

1. **There has been a rapid increase in the number of teacher education institutions and students.** China now has 1059 secondary normal schools with 651,262 students, over 8.6 times the number in 1949. There are 260 higher teacher education institutions (75 teachers' colleges and universities and 185 professional teachers' institutes) with 507,963 students, more than 20 and 30 times, respectively, the number in 1949.

2. **There has been a similar increase in the number of teacher educators.** In 1984 China had 45,000 secondary normal school teachers (responsible for primary teacher preparation) and 61,094 teachers in higher teacher education institutions (including 529 professors, 3,529 associate professors, 23,670 lecturers, 8,461 teachers and 24,905 assistants). This number is 36 times the number in 1949.

3. **There has been increased specialization in secondary education,** including new specialities such as library science, computer science, radio-physics, and biological chemistry. Recently, teacher education institutions have provided specialization for vocational and technical school teachers (such as industrial electric automation, mechanical manufacturing technology, and agricultural education).

4. **In-service teacher education is becoming systematised.** At present China has 268 in-service teacher education institutes with 251,203 students and 26,053 teachers and 2,099 teacher training schools with 881,027 students and 44,144 teachers. Night and correspondence courses are provided by these institutions.

In summary, China's teacher education has developed into a multi-levelled and multi-channelled system, able to educate teachers for China's education system.

## III Future Teacher Education Goals

However, China's teacher education is facing the task of preparing teachers to enable the universalization of 9-year compulsory education, considered vital for the nation's future. There is also the challenge of rapid development of vocational and technical education. For example, from 1986 to 1990 about 1,000,000 more primary, 750,000 more junior secondary and 300,000 more senior secondary teachers will be needed. To realise such goals, China's teacher development will occur in three steps:

1. Help the present teachers to become qualified, at the same time preparing teachers for those subjects in short supply (such as foreign languages, biology, geography, history, music, arts and physical education).
2. The second step is to provide sufficient qualified teachers for all school subjects.
3. The third step is the transition to higher political and professional requirements for primary, junior, and senior secondary school teachers.

## IV Measures of Reform

China is taking the following measures to reform the current teacher education.

1. Pre-service and in-service teacher education is to become more accessible. Various kinds of adult education such as correspondence education, broadcast and T.V. education, and self-directed learning, will be mobilised.
2. The scale of the present teacher education institutions will be extended to enrol more students every year. At present each of China's higher teacher education institutions has an average number of 1,317 students, preparing 84,000 graduates every year, far below the productivity of other kinds of institutions of higher learning.
3. The orientation of teacher education institutions to serve the goals of elementary, vocational and technical education, and the universalization

of 9-year compulsory education, will be defined. Some key universities will serve as education and research centres.

4. Specialization will be adapted to the needs of elementary, vocational and technical education.

(a) Courses in short supply and urgently needed in secondary schools (such as history, geography, foreign languages) will be added. Students are encouraged to choose courses so that they will be able to teach at least two subjects if appointed to the outback and rural areas.

(b) In-service primary and secondary school teachers rather than senior secondary students will be enrolled in political education and education science. After two years of study they will be promoted from their original teaching posts.

(c) Specialities will be added according to need to vocational technical education (such as adding electro-engineering to the physics department, chemical technology to the chemistry department, applied mathematics and/or accounting to the mathematics department).

5. Teaching content and method will be revised to provide professional foundations. Rote teaching method will be replaced by elicitation and discussion. Students will be allowed more time for independent study. Courses in educational sciences and practice will be strengthened. In addition to the required courses of pedagogy, psychology and teaching method, elective courses (such as history of education, history of science, psychology, and moral education) will be provided.

6. Higher teacher education institutions will stress research of educational practice, carrying out experiments and analysing practical experience.

7. The system of enrolment and job assignment in teacher education institutions will be reviewed.

(a) To enable the stabilization and improvement of elementary teachers, recruiting will be localized. Under the overall planning of provincial governments, local teacher education institutions will implement a policy of selecting and enrolling students from where teachers are needed. After graduation, the teachers return where they are needed.

(b) To raise the quality of student intake, some provinces have trialled higher teacher education institutions examining and enrolling students autonomously. This policy has been successful and will be extended.

(c) Those subjects which are not suitable for incoming senior secondary students (political education, for example) will turn to enrolling students from school teachers and experienced educational administrators.

(d) Professional teacher institutes and secondary normal schools, besides adhering to directional enrolment and education, will recommend excellent students for admission to higher teacher education institutions. These will return as teachers to the normal schools they come from.

(e) Comprehensive universities, teachers' universities and colleges are required to prepare elementary education teachers for minority regions.

(f) Students in teacher education institutions are provided with accommodation and tuition. After graduation, they will be assigned by the educational departments. Those who are assigned to work in the outback areas are given preferential treatment.

8. In-service teacher education is to be strengthened. In 1984, 2,400,000 teachers (including 1,400,000 primary school teachers, 750,000 junior secondary school teachers, 140,000 senior secondary school teachers and 60,000 agricultural and vocational school teachers) needed in-service training. The government is planning to make them qualified in five to seven years.

To attain this goal the following measures have been implemented.

(i) Various forms of in-service teacher education have been made accessible.

(a) Education institutes and teacher training schools will concentrate their efforts on in-service teacher education;

(b) Higher teacher education institutions, other institu-tions of higher learning; secondary normal and professional schools are providing in-service teacher education by means of correspondence, night schools or colleges, vacational coaching or by running short-term or long-term training classes;

(c) Adult education such as radio and T.V. education, teach-oneself examination will also be used;

(d) The State Council's state cadres "lecture teams" will train teachers in provinces;

(e) Other social groups, parties or organizations will be mobilized to train in-service teachers.

(ii) Most teachers will receive in-service education without releasing themselves from work. Teach-oneself examination will become a basic form to obtain teacher certificates. Vacations in primary and secondary schools will be lengthened to benefit teachers and pupils.

(iii) Compiling teaching materials and references for primary and secondary school teachers is a priority for teacher education institutions.

9. The leadership and administration of teacher education will be reviewed.

(a) A unified administrative body will manage all teacher education institutions.

(b) Teacher education institutions will also be administered at different levels. The State Education Commission will administer some teachers' universities and the Central Educational Administration College; other teachers' colleges will be managed by provinces, autonomous regions and municipalities directly under the central government; professional teacher institutes will be commonly managed by provinces, autonomous regions, municipalities, prefectures and local cities. Education departments will examine and evaluate teacher education institutions at various levels.

10. Teacher development within higher teacher education institutions will be given priority. The State Education Commission will select teachers' colleges and universities as centres of training teachers in higher teacher education institutions; some comprehensive universities and foreign languages institutes will run postgraduate training classes; secondary normal schools and in-service teacher training schools will be given priority to get undergraduates as teachers from teachers' colleges or universities; those unqualified teachers in the present higher teacher education institutions will be transferred to other posts.

## V Conclusion

In summary, China's teacher education has developed rapidly over the past decades. However, it is faced with an urgent task of preparing and training a large number of qualified teachers for the universalization of 9-year compulsory education and for the rapid development of vocational and technical education in the late 1980s and the 1990s. The Chinese government recognises these needs and is acting to address them.

# 24·5 TEACHING ABORIGINAL CHILDREN

## AVAILABLE RESOURCES

Nerissa Albon
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BATHURST

There is a definite need for teacher educators to include strategies for teaching Aboriginal children in teacher training courses in our Universities and Colleges.

Many valuable resources have been prepared by Aboriginal organizations and departments. These are not being used to full advantage in the training of teachers. Many of these future teachers, with little knowledge of available resources or strategies for teaching Aboriginal children, will be placed in schools with a high proportion of Aboriginal students. As teacher educators we have a responsibility to present appropriate material to our students. This material should cover practical teaching strategies as well as the cultural implications of teaching Aboriginal children in the classroom.

The following cultural differences will be discussed during the round table session:-

a) Extended families;
b) Language;

c) Sharing;

d) Past and Present Orientation;

e) Time Orientation;

f) Body Language;

g) Group Orientation;

h) Learning Differences;

i) Different Values;

j) Experiences and skills that children bring to School;

k) Self-esteem.

Specific strategies related to the cultural differences listed (a - k) will be discussed in the session in relation to the resources that will be available for participants to take away with them.

The cultural differences listed have important implications for the classroom teacher. These implications relate to specific strategies that are dependant on appropriate teachers expectations and attitudes.

> "The level of achievement experienced by children in school depends very much on teachers' expectations. Teachers may, in their dealings with Aboriginal children, sub consciously reflect negative stereotype attitudes held by the community at large". (Dept. of Education Western Region, Teaching Aboriginal Children:

A Co-operative Approach).

Teachers working with Aboriginal children should also be aware of the need to work closely with the Aboriginal community. Strategies include:

i. Aboriginal Guest Speakers.
ii. Appropriate recognition of National Week and its importance to Aboriginal people.
iii. Involvement of parents in school activities.
iv. Involvement of parents in planning and presenting activities in the classroom.
v. Consulting with organizations such as NSW Aboriginal Education Consultative Group and members of the Aboriginal Education Unit, Department of Education in Sydney.
vi. Holding meetings with individual parents.
vii. Inviting parents to view displays.
viii. Inviting parents to Barbecues and informal coffee afternoons.

If teacher education intends to show progress and promise in regard to Aboriginal children training institutions need to address the specific needs of these children and the resulting implications for classroom teachers.

The following resources will be presented during the roundtable session.

Teaching Aboriginal Children } Department of Education,
- A Co-operative Approach } Western Region.

Strategies for Teaching } Directorate of Special
Aboriginal Children } Programs. NSW Department
} of Education.

The New South Wales Department of Education and the Education of Aborigines 1880 to 1940 - J. Fletcher.

Curriculum Implementation - Multicultural Education Aboriginal Education. NSW Department of Education.

Resources in Aboriginal Studies - Aboriginal Education Unit.

Making Use of Biased texts - Carmelle Le Vin-Reus.

Films and Videos to Support Aboriginal Studies, perspectives, No. 1, 2 and 3 - Aboriginal Education Unit.

Aboriginal Education in the eighties, volume 2 - Australian History - An Alternative Approach - Metropolitan West Region.

Aboriginal Education Policy - NSW Department of Education.

Places to Visit in Sydney which have an Aboriginal Perspective for School students - Aboriginal Education Unit.

## 25.1 SUPERVISION FOR SUCCESS: VIDEOTAPED DISCUSSION FOR STARTERS

Jef Clark, Brisbane C.A.E.
David Price, Capricornia Institute

The session will focus on a videotape on the Supervision Cycle.

This videotape features two student/supervising teacher pairs engaged in critical phases of the clinical supervision process, and final semester student commenting on the significance of general teacher-aide tasks in practice teaching on her professional development.

The clinical supervision focus is central to the purpose of the videotape, which is designed to serve as a discussion starter for supervisor development programs. The two main scenarios involving student-supervisor pairs are as follows:

One pair is involved in a pre-lesson conference focussing on the nature of the observations the student will make during the teacher's lesson. The conference is intercut with scenes from the actual lesson.

The second pair is involved in both a pre-lesson and post-lesson conference focussing on the student-teacher's lesson. The post-lesson conference is intercut with scenes from the student's lesson.

Throughout the videotape, the narrative draws attention to the range of supportive supervision skills and strategies modelled by the supervising teachers.

K.Kennett
Nepean C.A.E.

A.Allan
Jamison Town Public School

25.2

# MEANINGFUL LEARNING ENVIRONMENTS: IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHERS FROM AN INTERVENTION PROGRAM TO ASSIST SLOW LEARNING CHILDREN

High priorities in Australian education focus on economies and excellence. Quality educational programs involve the provision of meaningful learning environments, which cater for individual differences and encourage the development of individual strengths. In this way, adaptive behaviour, as an outcome of excellence in education, is recognised as the process of matching the resources of the individual with the demands of the environment.

Successful personal adaptation and meaningful learning depends on the individual possessing "the ability to acquire necessary skills, an adequate level of motivation, and the desire to utilize and allocate energies and skills in balancing both internal and external needs. Similarly, the environment must offer equally important components, such as, satisfactory solutions to cope with demands, adequate provisions and opportunities for appropriate skill acquisition and availability at local school level.

Teachers should be aware of essential factors in strengthening the efficiency of meaningful learning environments. For example, teachers must recognise the importance for all students:-

1 to acquire social competencies;

2 to accept personal responsibility;

3 to acquire basic reading skills;

4 to benefit from teacher and parent resources;

5 to enjoy learning with their parents;

6 to witness co-operation among parents and teachers;

7 to benefit from the flexibility of organizational structure that recognize the importance of and

In relation to the last point, the notion of either special classes or mainstreaming for the educational servicing of 'special education' students must be replaced with a flexibility that satisfies both individual and environmental requirements. Partial integration or group removal for specialized learning may be appropriate for a whole range of students. The implication for teachers is the recognition that many efficient combinations for learning exist, such that, students may be mainstreamed (the retention of the mildly retarded child in regular education classrooms), may be grouped for special lessons, may initially be in separate, special education classes, and may move from one lerning environment to another on a daily basis.

The effectiveness of such learning environments depend on teacher competence, on clearly defined roles, on specific goals and the dedication, motivation and commitment that is essential in all successful learning experiences.

One study demonstrates the importance of these factors as they apply to slow learning children attending a normal primary school. The study evaluated four types of educational provisions and the associated implications for teachers. In one provision, sixty-four children demonstrated important, and significant improvements in levels of reading, adjustment and self-esteem.

The School Counsellor identified 120 children in need of assistance, as Listed in Table 1.

TABLE 1

SUMMARY OF SURVEY OF TEACHER OPINION OF
CHILDREN MAKING SLOW PROGRESS IN NORMAL CLASSES

| MAJOR HANDICAP | Language | Home | Emotional | Physical Handicap | Slow Learner | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| SURVEY TOTAL | 24 | 36 | 17 | 10 | 33 | 120 |
| INCLUDED IN PROG. | 13 | 12 | 11 | 3 | 25 | 64 |

The purpose of the factorial design was to measure the effectiveness of the major program components (independent variables) in bringing about changes in the developmental measures (outcome variables) under study.

The independent variables in the model were:

Special or regular class arrangement (A),
Parent participation/non participation as classroom helpers (P)
Withdrawal/non-withdrawal class programs (W)

The outcome variables in the model were changes in levels over the period of the program of:

Reading (RA), Adjustment (Adj), Self Esteem (P.H. and Coop)

The experimental model was based on a four group (2 x 2) factorial design, as follows:

GROUPS

| | No daily withdrawal | Daily Withdrawal |
|---|---|---|
| Regular Classes | Group A | Group B |
| Special Classes | Group C | Group D |

Data from both formative and summative evaluation suggested that the program had largely achieved its stated objectives. The experimental results were analysed by multivariate procedures to ascertain the relative effectiveness of the major program components. Two of the components, parental participation and the withdrawal system, were shown to have marked positive effects on reading, adjustment and self-esteem. An examination of the effect of the third major component, (type of class arrangement), suggested that, while regular class placement was preferable to special class placement for the majority of the children, special placement was essential for children with very low academic standards, and for children with relatively serious emotional problems.

The major results showed that the type of organization and program adopted by a school can have a strong bearing on the acdemic, personal and social development of slow learning children. The results indicate that the most effective provison and school can make for slow learners is to place them in regular (non-segregated) classes, provide them with a carefully sequenced withdrawal program, and involve their parents as classroom helpers. Such an arrangement can accelerate reading ability and lead to increased personal and social adjustment. The withdrawal program and parent participation can also have beneficial effects on aspects of self esteem, and these effects are likely to occur regardless of whether class organization is based on special or regular arrangements.

Teachers, parents and children saw the effects as coming about in basically different ways. Teachers stressed the importance of additional parental support and individual attention available to the children; parents stressed that they themselves had become more confident in the school situation and more aware of program goals; and children believed that parents and teachers had become more caring.

Findings had a bearing on several further issues. Cost effectiveness was supported by data on children successfully mainstreamed and subsequently avoiding grade repetition, thus representing a considerable saving in special education services and resources. The program had differential effects on elements making up the adjustment and self esteem inventories; progress in reading influenced teachers' ratings of child adjustment; and reciprocity occurred between teachers' ratings and the children's self esteem ratings.

Over the three months post-program period, reading gains were maintained, but further progress was at a much slower rate. This result, and the decline over the post-program period of adjustment and self esteem scores, emphasised the importance of continued support following mainstreaming.

The general implications for teachers raised by this research and others (eg Kennett & Buchanan) are:

1 Slow learners can learn successfully if the material is presented under appropriate conditions;

2 An examination of the individual child's needs and abilities requires a program to meet them;

3 Specific and detailed objectives are necessary - what skills and knowledge do the individual children require and using what teaching/learning procedures;

4 Teaching needs to be individualized to the greatest possible extent.

5 Each child must have positive attitudes to self and school, have reasonable periods of time for learning and overall the experience should be concerned with both affective as well as academic objectives;

6 Children must be motivated to learn and encouraged to enjoy school experiences.

25·3

# ASSESSMENT AND STUDENT MOTIVATION: THE IMPLICATIONS OF RECENT RESEARCH FOR TEACHER EDUCATORS

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Schools are, whether we like it or not, evaluative settings and the way in which students are assessed reflects the values and goals of both the individual teacher and the wider educational context of which the teacher is a part, thus some 10 years ago, Rowntree (1977: 4) asserted:

> If we wish to discover the truth about an educational system, we must look into its assessment procedures, what student qualities and achievements are actively valued and rewarded by the system? How are its purposes and intentions realized?... The spirit and style of student assessment defines the de facto curriculum.

Assessment has frequently been viewed as a means of motivating students. Ebel (1982: 376), for example, draws attention to the role of assessment in arounsing students' motivation and channelling their efforts into 'educationally significant' knowledge, which he holds to be the primary function of schooling and he claims:

> To audit pupil achievement is to add powerful motivation to teacher and pupil efforts.

While few would deny that assessment can serve as a means of promoting and channelling student learning, recent research has suggested that assessment may reduce students' intrinsic motivation. Maehr and his colleagues (Maehr, 1977: Maehr and Stallings, 1972, Fyans, Kremer, Salili and Maehr, 1981) have demonstrated that teacher assessment can depress intrisic motivation and that this effect may be greater in the case of learners whose intitial level of intrisic motivation is high. Normative assessment, which draws attention to the individuals' performance relative to that of others, seems to be particularly damaging to the intrinsic motivation of average and low performing students (Covington, 1983, 1984; Nicholls, 1983) but even in high performing students an emphasis on normative assessment may promote ego involvement rather than task involvement (Butler, 1987): in other words students come to perform the task for the ego enchancement which success brings rather than for the intrinsic rewards inherent in the task.

Recent research has shown that assessment should not be regarded as a unitary variable and has provided greater insight into the dimensions of assessment which may reduce, or indeed enhance, students' intrinsic motivation. The present paper examines the effects of such aspects of assessment as normative versus criterion based emphasis, participation in the assessment process, level of difficulty, assessment load, and feedback on students' intrinsic motivation. The paper draws on recent research reported by Butler (1987); Butler and Nisan (1986) and Krampen (1987) which emphasizes the importance of assessment feedback and examines the effects of assessment in the context of attribution theory. The main findings of a recently completed doctoral study undertaken by the writer in which the effects of assessment and related contextual and personality variables on secondary school students' intrinsic motivation for English were examined in a sample of 260 Brisbane students, will also be discussed.

The paper addresses the implications for teacher educators of recent research relating to the effects of assessment on students' motivation. It is argued that where school assessment is used a means of coercion and where it is viewed by students as manipulative and oppressive, it will have a deleterious effect on their motivation. Where assessment is perceived by students as serving a useful diagnostic role, however, it will tend to enhance intrinsic motivation. A number of strategies will be proposed for equipping student teachers with the information and skills necessary for using assessment as a means of enhancing, rather than undermining student motivation. These procedures focus on ways of securing greater student participation in the assessment process and the provision of more meaningful assessment feedback so that assessment itself becomes a significant learning process.

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# 25.4 UTILISATION OF A CLIENT-CENTRED CARE STUDY AS A LEARNING/TEACHING/ASSESSMENT STRATEGY IN PRESERVICE NURSE EDUCATION.

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ABSTRACT

The aim of this paper is to share our experiences in utilising a client-centred care study as a learning/teaching/assessment strategy for third year (final semester) students in the Diploma of Applied Science (Nursing).

The care study was the major assessment task in the Acute Illness Unit, and had as its aim for students to integrate nursing knowledge (cognitive, psychomotor and affective) with nursing practice within a total client care framework.

The paper will present a review of the literature and will examine (1) the planning required, (2) problems encountered in implementation, (3) the student product and, finally, student evaluation of the care plan as a learning strategy.

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INTRODUCTION

As nurse teachers, we find ourselves in a unique (perhaps an invidious) situation: at a conference primarily aimed at education for teachers, we are offering our thoughts as a contribution to the progress of education for nurses. Additionally, we are issuing a challenge to those involved in nurse education to the promise of nursing's stated aim of achieving professional status.

Nurse teachers frequently use the case study strategy. In trying to justify our use of this strategy, we found it to be documented only as a research method or as a technique used by the medical profession: very little was documented in the nursing literature. It appears that nurse educators accept the value of the strategy - but may fail to 'think through' its educational underpinnings.

This paper outlines our implementation of the case study strategy and briefly examines what we believe to be the educational validation for its use.

In the development of a teaching unit entitled "Changes in Needs due to Acute Illness", we decided to incorporate a client-centred nursing care study as a teaching/learning/assessment strategy in the Diploma of Applied Science (Nursing) course at the Catholic College of Education Sydney, North Sydney. The case study was the major assessment task in the unit.

Our rationale for the choice of a case study was based on:

(1) the previous successful experience by students in the use of the case study under simulated conditions;
(2) principles of teaching and learning; and
(3) the students' concurrent studies in research methods.

(1) Previous successful experience by the students in the use of the case study under simulated conditions.

In the previous semester, the students had experienced a case study approach using a simulated client. The learning value of this strategy was rated highly by the students. In our experience as students, clinicians and teachers, we have found the case study a valuable mode of integrating theory with practice. Further, we believe that it encourages the development of interpersonal skills between the student and the client and between the student and other health professionals.

(2) Our argument for the use of case studies in nurse education, on the basis of theories of teaching and learning, is influenced by the writings of Gagne, Bruner and Ausubel.

Nursing is a practice-based discipline which utilises a problem-solving process in providing nursing care. The case study approach provides an opportunity for practise in problem-solving by making it possible for students apply their entire repertoire of knowledge, skills and strategies (Gagne, 1978). Discovery learning is necessary in problem-solving, facilitating the transfer of learning (Bruner, 1961). Where generalisations have been discovered by the student, transfer may well be increased (Ausubel, 1968). Meier and Pugh (1986, p 197) state that "Clinical knowledge develops through focusing upon individual health problems and intervention effects; this information modifies the clinical data base and facilitates application of more generic knowledge to subsequent individual cases".

(3) The students' concurrent studies included a research methods unit.

We felt that the case study would help to bridge the research/practice gap. Meier and Pugh (1986) argue that a case study which is organised within a certain time-frame allows for a longitudinal understanding of a client's health problem, the nursing interventions designed to solve the problem, and the client's response to those interventions.

Additionally, in preparing the report on the case study, students were required to collect data concerning their client from the medical records department. This activity gave them insight into the value and limitations of utilising records as a source of information.

## PLANNING AND IMPLEMENTATION

Our aim in designing the task objectives for the case study was to assess the student's ability to utilise a problem-solving process (the nursing process). In particular, emphasis would be placed on clinical assessment of the client by the student, the planning of appropriate nursing interventions and evaluation of the effectiveness of those interventions. To achieve this aim, we proposed that each student would provide nursing care for a client experiencing illness in an acute care facility, for example an Intensive Care Unit, a Burns Unit or a Coronary Care Unit.

The first part of the assignment required each student to provide a profile of her/his client, including the relevant pathophysiology, and to design a nursing care plan for that client. In the second part, the student would be required to compare and contrast their proposed nursing care with that implemented by the clinicians, i.e. comparative evaluation of nursing care. The relative importance of each task would then be reflected in the marking criteria.

Much discussion ensued regarding the legal and ethical implications of the study. Anticipation of problems and constraints inherent in the care study was crucial. Firstly, permission for the students to conduct the studies had to be obtained from the Directors of Nursing and/or the Ethics Committees of the participating institutions. Secondly, the clients' medical records were to be used as an essential part of the assessment and evaluation phases. Hence, the medical records librarians had to be notified regarding the students' intentions to attain access to those records.

Once the assignment guidelines had been written and permission granted, lecturers and other clinical teachers involved in the teaching of the students were to be briefed regarding our aims and objectives for the students in undertaking the care study.

The students received both written and verbal briefing regarding the case study assignment. Students were made aware of the availability of lecturers for discussion of the assignment, and such discussion was encouraged, prior to the submission of the care study.

## EVALUATION

In terms of the standard of the case studies submitted, we were delighted to find that the students clearly demonstrated professional growth. The students were able to integrate their theoretical and practical nursing knowledge and to apply this knowledge at an analytical level. In discussion with the students, we noted that they were enthusiastic regarding their own capabilities to meet the criteria of the assignment and hence felt a great sense of personal and professional achievement.

One negative aspect we encountered was related to the students' inexperience in clinical practice. The assignment required the student to compare and contrast the nursing care they had planned with that actually given by the clinical nurses. The students found this comparison difficult, given that they were participating in the care of clients in specialist areas and their own skills were those of a beginning practitioner.

Following these results and comments, we intend to extend the use of the case study strategy as a clinical learning tool. We foresee that we would introduce the strategy at the beginning of the second year, utilising it each semester and increasing the level of complexity according to the students' level of learning.

## CONCLUSION

Meier and Pugh (1986, p 200) argue that " ... The case study represents one viable research strategy for investigation of client-centred clinical phenomena within the domain of nursing." We believe that it is also a valid educational strategy for students of nursing and, although frequently used in nurse education, the nursing literature is noticeably devoid of research on the efficacy of the case study approach. We would argue for more nurse teachers to reflect on the reasons for using the strategy based on educational principles and to share their experiences.

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25.5

**TITLE:** Factors Affecting the Implementation of New South Wales Department of Education's Multicultural Policy in Selected Sydney Schools
**SPEAKERS:** Barbara McLean and Fran Smith
**AFFILIATION:** School of Education
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In the past decade, many educational systems across Australia have been engaged in developing multicultural educational policies. In New South Wales the policy, first formulated in 1979, with a revised edition in 1983, included two mandatory elements to be introduced by 1987 - Multicultural Perspectives Across the Curriculum and Intercultural Understanding. Two support documents stating general aims and providing some suggested practices were released in 1983 and a further document suggesting implementation strategies in 1987.

The present study was motivated by a desire to find out something about how the policy was in fact being implemented in schools as perceived by teachers and executive staff, what particular strategies appeared to be successful and what were some of the perceived needs still to be met. We were particularly interested in the schools which are associated with our Teacher Education Program at Macquarie University through the School Experience Program. Not only would these schools be a relevant sample but through the Master Teacher network they provided the opportunity to share good ideas and to consider what input the university could make in terms of dealing with perceived needs.

A questionnaire was developed which asked for background information in relation to size and composition of school, and teacher experience. Respondents were asked to describe what characterised an education that was multicultural, to list practices and procedures which had been introduced, to indicate what was further needed, to give their opinion on the learning of a second language and on the need for inservice courses. Classroom teachers were asked to comment specifically on their own area of teaching, how multicultural perspectives were introduced, how cultural bias was countered, the extent to which human rights and racism studies were included, as well as being asked to identify relevant resources or gaps in available materials and a particular comment about ESL in the mainstream classroom.

The preliminary processing of the survey results, while incomplete, does reveal several trends which occur across levels of schooling. Most of the primary teachers had read the Multicultural Policy Statement and the Support documents as had all the executive staff. About two thirds of the secondary teachers had read the policy statement but less than half had read any of the support documents. Most of the respondents who had not read the documents did not know where they were to be found. General response to the documents was that they were not specific enough although several respondents indicated the documents made them more aware when developing units of work. Others indicated that lack of time meant that they had not read the documents thoroughly.

In describing what characterised an education that was multicultural, all who responded placed a great emphasis on learning about other cultures. The primary teachers tended to express their answers in a way which could be interpreted as separate studies of different groups, focusing on fairly superficial aspects such as festivals and food. The secondary teachers as a group, perhaps because of their subject specialisation had considered more specific ways in which multicultural perspectives could be integrated into what they were teaching.

When asked to indicate specific practices which had been introduced into the school, multicultural days still featured strongly, especially at primary school level. Several primary schools taught a language other than English, one teacher talked about teaching basic vocabulary in a variety of languages and several mentioned building up multilingual resources in the library. Multicultural content was introduced into Social Studies lessons, one school was producing a bicentennial book for which children were tracing their origins, and another school used a strategy whereby individual teachers developed a particular lesson on some aspect of another culture and taught it to all classes.

About one third of primary teachers and executive staff felt that nothing more than was currently being done was needed to be done, while about a quarter focused on the need for staff training to develop greater input from the Education Department, more resources and the need for increased liaison with NESB parents, perhaps through a multicultural newsletter. Other desirable practices which would support progress included inservice, liaison officers, and greater sharing of information within the school, for example, by talking with ESL teachers. However teachers generally conveyed little urgency describing their unmet needs.

This contrasted with the secondary teachers responses to the questions relating to needs and to the practices which have sprung from attempts to meet these needs. These secondary responses have not yet been grouped in subject areas. Secondary teachers listed practices such as visiting ethnic restaurants and fostering exchange students, but also showed that multicultural practices were incorporated at the level of course development, such as introducing Asian Studies, emphasising Aboriginal Studies, trialling Chinese as a foreign language study and adding additional drama and one unit studies. More innovative practices included one school's introduction of a bridging course in Year 10 for students with a broken educational background, including illiteracy in their mother tongue.

The majority of secondary teachers provided detailed and specific statements of needs, most of which focused on the need for more resources, including human resources such as ESL teachers, extra full-time and part-time staff, access to consultants, and also more funding for programs and materials. Secondary teachers also included the need for teacher support from the Department of Education and less reliance on policy documents.

At primary level just under half the respondents believed learning a second language should be compulsory, and most of those indicated this should take place throughout the schooling years. Nearly all the secondary teachers rejected the idea that learning a second language should be compulsory.

With regard to level of competence in reading and writing, the question revealed several interpretations. Responses at primary level indicated that this was a normal high priority and focus. However at secondary level, almost two thirds of the teachers saw it as a problem, with most of these indicating they did not feel confident in their ability to help ESL children in the mainstream classroom.

On the question of inservice, nearly everyone indicated that they would be willing to attend inservice in the area if it were available, preferably on a whole school planning day basis. The second preference was a 2-5 day course, with few people interested in weekend or evening courses. While the respondents were not keen to give up their own time to further knowledge in areas required by the Department, they did recognise the value of whole school planning if they were to achieve a consistent school policy.

Issues which arise from the study include the following:

* How can official policy statements be made more meaningful to the classroom teacher?

* How does a view of multiculturalism which goes beyond song, dance and food, to include an anti-racist perspective become more widespread?

* How do we make multiculturalism a high priority so that teachers take the time to read and think about the issues and what these mean for them?

* How can implementation of policies be monitored?

* Have the 'believers' lost enthusiasm?

* What are the suitable resources in different areas and at different levels and how can teachers be kept informed?

* How do good ideas get shared?

* What strategies for inservice work best?

* What can teacher education institutions do in the way of pre-service education?

These and other issues raised by participants will be the focus of discussion at the round table.

# 25.6 "ALTERNATIVE MODES IN PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION OF GRADUATING TEACHERS"

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"Conducting a Teacher Employment Seminar Weekend"

An account of Teacher Employment Seminars held at Victoria College Burwood Campus and Toorak Campus 1984-1987.

## Why a Weekend Seminar?

In June 1984, Victoria College received employment figures for the previous years graduating Diploma students. At that stage of the year, less than 50% of the college graduates were in teaching positions. A brief survey was held of both the previous years students and the current class of final year diploma students. The conclusion was that despite an excellent professional preparation program (2 hours per week for the Final Semester) most final year students had limited expectations of employment. Students were depressed by the restraints on employment in the State system and ignorant or fearful of employment outside the State system. Furthermore, students had given practically no consideration of employment in related non-teaching areas: Industrial Training, personnel management and para-educational areas. There also seemed to be a lack of co-ordination between the College careers department and the professional Training Course run by the School of Primary Education.

Our initial reaction was to attempt to strengthen the existing course with visits from school principals and employers, and to introduce the students to important employment skills: Writing Curriculum Vitaes and practicing mock interviews. Unfortunately, it was found virtually impossible for Visiting Speakers to come during College hours (coinciding with school hours) and furthermore, the careers orientated skills (C.V. writing mock interviews etc.) seemed inappropriate in the more structured Education Faculty environment.

It was decided that the best way to introduce a wide variety of career options, was in a one day intensive seminar. Instead of having 10 weeks of one hour classes, why not have one 10 hour session. Moreover, it was felt that it should be held at the weekend when speakers were available, it should be entirely voluntary so as to remove any negative elements. Furthermore, it should be run on the lines of a professional, properly catered seminar, such as might be found in industry. There would be a registration, each student would receive a folder containing a dossier of information on the speakers and the tea breaks and lunch would be professionally catered to minimise the time wasted.

The First Seminar was held in July 1984, opened by the State Education Department Director of Staffing, and with Speakers from State, Private, Catholic Schools. Students also heard from as diverse a source of employers as The Director of Army Education Corps, Senior Training Officer Coles/Myer, Senior personnel Officer David Jones, the Head of the Education Section of Australian Volunteers Abroad and related areas including publishing. The last session in the afternoon was devoted to Application Letters, C.V.s and Interview Strategies with many of the visiting principals and employers taking part.

The result in the following years (1985-1987), was a fall in unemployed graduating teachers and an increase in variety of teaching (and related) positions sought.

My workshop (2 hours) would develop this Theme further for those in Education Colleges and Faculties interesting in running similar seminars.

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**Dana F. Lawrence**

**Saskatchewan Urban
Native Teacher
Education Program**

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Historically in Canada the training of teachers has occured in the institutional setting where the individual seeking training as a professional educator has moved to the location of the training centre. In the majority of cases these centres have been in urban locations usually affiliated with a university or large post secondary institution.

In Canada the length of time it takes to complete a teacher education program and to gain government certification has increased as well. Where fifty years ago training was often only six or eight weeks, Bachelor of Education programs are now generally four and in at least one instance, five year programs. Interim certication available after one, two or three years of training has now been phased out and the full program must be completed prior to teaching.

The above factors led to a situation whereby a person desiring to train as a teacher must be located in an urban centre for a period of at least four years. For people residing in non-urban centres this necessitates a move to the location of the program. While this may not be too difficult for a young person without family responsibilites or family ties, it is often difficult for that person who has children and family responsibilities. This has led to a situation where the training for the profession of teaching is restricted to those that could relocate easily, those without family committment or those that decided to make the committment and move to an area where they could participate in teacher education programs.

This situation influenced the training of teachers in all geographic areas of Canada, and people from all cultures of Canada. One group of people responded to their perceived needs in teacher training with an innovative solution. It is to this group of people that this paper shall turn to describe an alternative method of delivery of teacher training that has proven successful over a period of twenty years. This cultural group, the indigenous populations of Canada, is chosen as it was within their culture that the following method of teacher education was pioneered.

Native Indian, Metis and Inuit people in Canada have not been full and equal participants in the education systems offered by churches, governments, provinces and territories. The reasons for this are many and well documented in the literature. Generally few native people have completed secodnary schooling and even fewer have participated in post-secondary training. Within the discipline of education the situation became very evident. More, writing in 1981, used the province of British Columbia as an example where in 1974 native Indian people represented 5 percent of the population of the province but only 1 percent of the teaching force. That meant that of a teaching population of 26,000 only 26 of those teachers were identified as being of native Indian ancestry. If the ratio had been equal, the number should have been about 1,300 native Indian teachers in the province. (More, 1981) This situation was generalized throughout Canada.

The reasons for this under-representation were many. Existing courses offered little content or methodology specific to the teaching of indigenous children. Relocation to a major centre was a major issue. Once on campus as one of very few aboriginal people alienation was a very real concern. Few schools, and conversly, few jobs for teachers, existed on reserves so a move 'home' was often difficult even after completion. Very few people met the traditional entrance requirements of the university programs so even admission itself was difficult.

Gradually the Indian, Metis and Inuit people themselves began to identify the high drop out rates specifically and the lack of education generally as one of the major factors influencing the economic and social conditions of the aboriginal people. One means of addressing this dissatisfaction with the existing systems was to have native Indian people involved with the education of the native Indian youth. "Indian control of Indian education" became a rallying cry of Indian people and an early step toward control of the education systems for Indian children was identified as the training of teachers of native ancestry (National Indian Brotherhood, 1973). The native communities of Canada responded to this lack of teachers from their own culture by negotiating with the universities in Canada to establish training programs that recognized the unique needs of these first peoples of the country (Lawrence, 1985).

The first of these programs was established in 1968 in the Northwest Territories of northern Canada. It was followed since then by over twenty Indian/Metis teacher education programs that have graduated an identified 844 degreed teachers and 786 non degreed but provincially certified teachers. As well over a thousand undergraduate students are presently registered in these programs (Lawrence, 1987).

It is important to affirm at the beginning that these programs train teachers to the same level of certification as any teacher in Canada and that a graduate of these programs is in no way restricted in their practice. The differences are in delivery and in areas of teaching specialization.

The common factor of the programs identified is based in the fact that the vast majority of these programs are defined wholly or partially as community based teacher education programs. A community based teacher education program may be defined as one that offers all or a major portion of the coursework in an off campus setting, generally in the specific community of the teachers in training, or in a regional satellite which does not impose relocation for the student. Some offer the first two years in an off campus setting; others have offered three years; the majority include an on campus residency period of at least a single semester and up to two years of attendance in the institutional setting. More also suggests that location is not the only factor used to determine the definition of community based programs. He suggests that the element of some degree of control by the Indian people is an indicator in the definition of a program as community based and in fact this has been used to separate programs without local control from programs with local control (More, 1981).

A community based teacher training program is often small, generally consisting of ten to thirty participants. Counselling and tutorial help is usually part of the program. A group identity is fostered and the group acts as a support infrastructure at the peer level. Each usually employs a coordinator who can often forsee and prvent problems before they become of a crtical nature as well as doing much of the administrative work related to funding, registration and other such detail. This frees the student to concentrate on the academic focus of his or her studies.

Community based teacher education programs generally accept students who do not have a formal university academic entrance requirement. This is done by accessing mature student entry programs, university entrance programs, and the like that encourage people to challenge the initial courses. Students are supported through counselling, tutorials and in-class assistance. Pre-university courses are often given in the areas of math and English and occasionally the sciences. This helps offset the lower level of academic preparation and helps the student develop a firm base for future academic studies. These programs are not available only to indigenous students but exist for all students.

Very often these programs have areas of teaching specialization that address the linguistic and cultural differences of their future students and of their own cultural group. Courses in Indian/Metis studies, in Indian languages and in Cross Cultural Education are found in most indigenous community based programs.

Delivery of courses remain under the juristiction of the institution. Instructors generally either travel from the university to the community or are people located in or near the community who meet university requirements and who are hired as sessional instructors.

Let us consider what it is in a community based teacher education program that allows us to suggest it is more holistic that the traditional, institutional centred program.

A holistic approach to something deals with more that the sum of the parts and tends to look at the complete system In medicine, as one example, holistic medicine deals with both the mind and the body and with the influences of one upon the other. Ecology, in defining holism, considers man and the environment as a single system (Websters, 1986). In education, and this treatment of community based teacher training as holistic, let us look at the needs of both the community and the student It will be argued that community based teacher education is holistic in the sense that it addresses the needs of the community and the needs of the individual to the ultimate betterment of both.

Community involvement is a critical element of community based teacher education programs. It is imperative that the initiative for such a program come from within the community itself Within many of the indigenous communities of Canada, for example, there are usually in place an education committee or council. It is often this group, working in consultation with the sponsoring institutuion and with the community members, that initiates the request for training. The higher the level of involvement and the earlier it begins, the stronger the level of ongoing input as the program continues. The education committee must remain active throughout the life of the program They should be involved in the initial request, in the selection process for students, hiring processes for any local staff, in funding, and in defining and implementing local community needs within the program. This committee is perceived by students and staff as the representative of community support, it also serves as the active linkage between community and institution.

The community based program brings resources, both human and financial into the community rather than the more common drain of resources seen when a student leaves the community and takes those resources with them. As well as the financial considerations, professional people are brought into the commmunity as instructors, resource people, co-ordinators and supervisors. These human resources often become involved in community development activities. The flow is into rather than out from the community. With a community that has marginal employment and resources this can be an important consideration. Again, it is more likely that a person maintaining a home and community contacts will be more likely to remain in the community to practise their new profession than that person who has been removed from the community for four years. This, in part, may help address the drain from the rural to the urban environment. It means, as well, that there will be an increase in indigenous teachers teaching indigenous children.

The role model of a developing professional, and later, of a teacher is an important consideration in a community where the professionals have generally come from outside and often remain only briefly. The people of the community, particularly the children, see their own people in the role of teacher. This helps allow the children to identify careers in the professions as a viable option for themselves.

In summary, then, the term community based education refers to an interaction between the program, the community, the university and the members of those societies. It brings all groups into a situation of mutual benefit to each without any group conceding power or making allowances that compromise the autonomy of each. The teacher training program performs it's function as it would if it were institutionally based. Although the method of delivery is different and location of the program is different, the same objectives are met through the same courses being offered. The results, certified teachers, are the same. At the same time the program has been more true to the needs of the local community and has benefitted from the input of the local people.

-Consider as well the mandate of the univeristy to provide training. University faculty have brought their skills and knowledge to the consumer rather than the more traditional bringing of the consumer to the faculty. Not least, the university community has had a chance to be innovative, to see a new delivery method in operation, to discover new areas of research and to benefit from the opportunity to interact with the indigenous culture as equals.

This paper speaks to the alternative delivery of teacher training as one culture in one country has found to work to the benefit of the people involved. There are diffiuclties and occasional failures. Delivery in isolated regins is an expensive way of providing post secondary education. Traditional universities sometimes have difficulty changing the view of established faculty. There are sceptics who question that a program away from the university setting can be equal or as academically rigourous as those on campus. And yes, there are those who feel that a program for indigenous people must in fact be less rigourous than one for non-indigenous people. Nonetheless, in Canada in the mid nineteen eighties, off campus teacher training is a reality within the indigenous culture, and is a reality that is perceived as successful by the native community, the academic coummunities and the school systems of Canada. If numbers are considered to equate with success, there are now nearly two thousand certified teachers of aboriginal ancestry where less than two decades ago there were few. It is now possible, and happening all over Canada, that a native child is educated in a system where they are taught by native teachers from nursery school through high school graduation. Part of this change has occured through training received in community based teacher education programs. With twenty years of such programming, community based teacher education is established in Canada as one viable alternative to instituion based training.

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## AUSTRALIAN TEACHER EDUCATION IN REVIEW
## Inaugural Yearbook of the South Pacific Journal of Education

The chapters in this book consider developments in Australian teacher education in the last two decades. This period has seen dramatic changes both in the demand for teachers and in the way Australian teachers have been trained for their professional roles. There have, too, been a number of major administrative upheavals as a result of changes in government policy. In this inaugural Yearbook the authors have attempted not only to tease out the major issues and events during this period, but have sought to isolate the problems to which teacher educators and administrators should be providing answers.

Yearbook Contents: Dr K.J. Eltis (editor)

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